

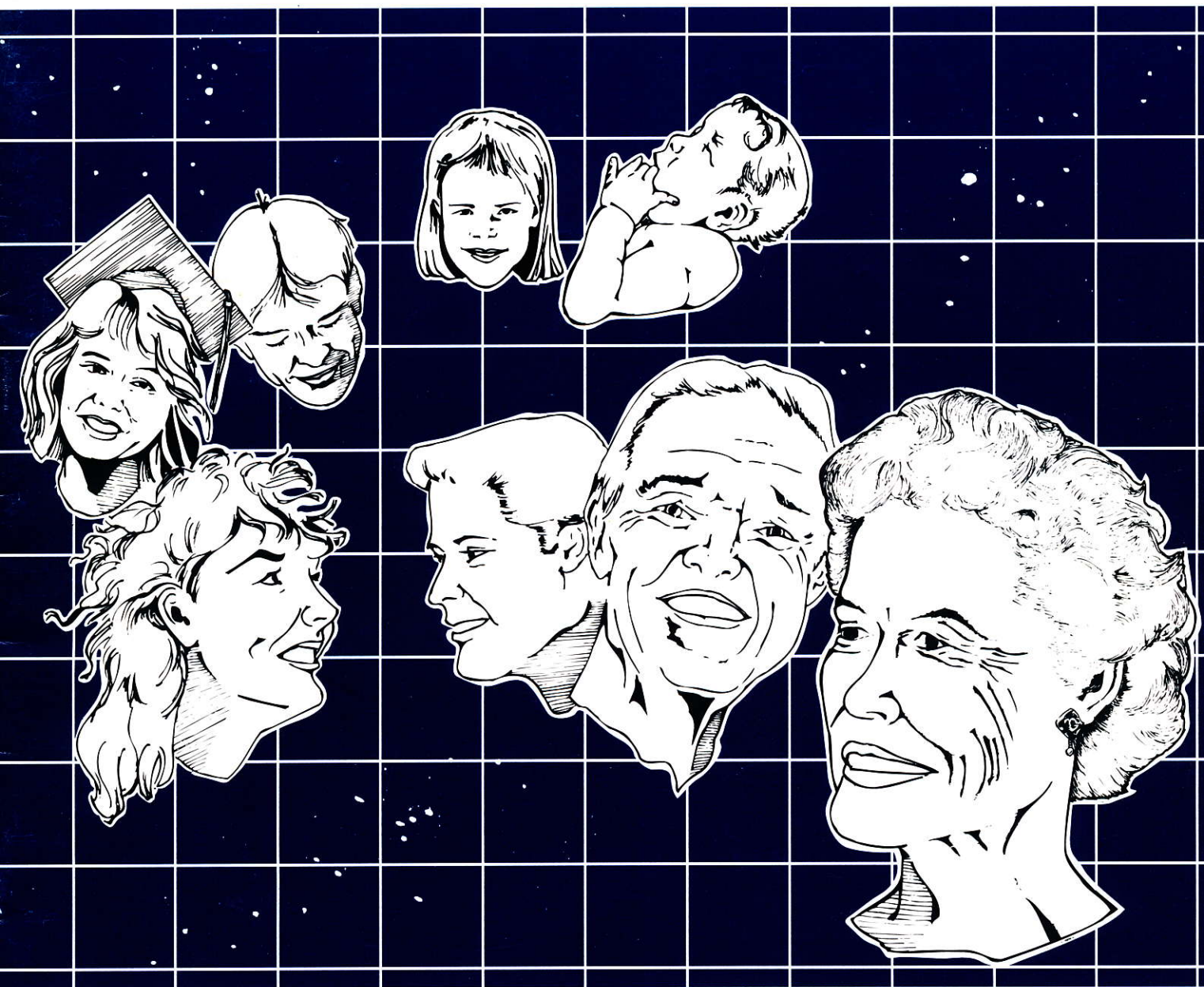


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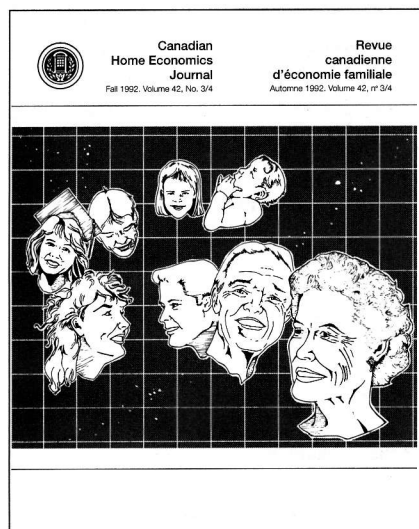
1. Uphold the mission of home economics to enhance the quality of daily life for individuals and families.
2. Support the Association and further its aims.
3. Discharge my professional duties with integrity.
4. Strive to provide the best service available and only that service for which qualifications are possessed.
5. Inform the public and employer of possible consequences of services, products and policies which may impact the well being of individuals and families.
6. Strive to make judgments and recommend solutions in a rational, must and unbiased manner in such matters as confidentiality and conflict of interest.
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10. Reflect critically on optimum conditions for human health and well being.
11. Conduct myself at all times so that no dishonor befalls individual members or the profession.

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En qualité d'économiste familiale et de membre de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale, je m'engage à pratiquer l'économie familiale aux mieux de mes compétences et à :

1. Appuyer la mission de l'économie familiale, qui consiste à améliorer la qualité de la vie quotidienne des personnes et des familles.
2. Soutenir l'Association et poursuivre les buts qu'elle s'est fixés.
3. Assumer mes responsabilités professionnelles avec intégrité.
4. M'efforcer de fournir les meilleurs services possibles, et seulement les services pour lesquels je suis qualifiée.
5. Informer le public et mon employeur des effets possibles des services, des produits et des politiques pouvant influencer sur le bien-être des personnes et des familles.
6. M'efforcer de porter des jugements et de recommander des solutions de façon rationnelle, juste et impartiale quand il est question de confidentialité et de conflits d'intérêt.
7. M'efforcer de protéger le public si des collègues et des professionnels de ma spécialité font preuve d'incompétence ou manquent à la déontologie.
8. M'efforcer de traiter la clientèle et mes collègues dans un esprit d'équité et de coopération.
9. Garder des normes élevées de pratique professionnelle grâce à la formation permanente, à une réflexion objective touchant l'expérience professionnelle, et au dialogue dans mon milieu professionnel.
10. Réfléchir objectivement sur les conditions optimales nécessaires à la santé et au bien-être des personnes.
12. Me conduire de façon à ne jamais jeter le discrédit sur des membres de la profession ou sur la profession même.



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L'Association d'Economie familiale est un organisme professionnel national regroupant les personnes diplômées en études de la famille, en consommation, en alimentation, en nutrition, en économie familiale ou en écologie humaine. Le but de l'Association est de promouvoir la profession et d'assurer une plus grande qualité de vie aux personnes et aux familles au Canada et dans le monde en voie de développement.

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President's Message / Le Message de la présidente

It is indeed a pleasure to write my first message to you as the newly elected President of CHEA. As an undergraduate student in home economics at the University of British Columbia almost thirty years ago, then CHEA President Gertrude Gerlach spoke to my class about the importance of professionalism in home economics. That message must have struck a responsive chord with me, and I am very honored to be following in the footsteps of many of the women who have made major contributions to our profession and who I have admired greatly. Thank you for giving me this opportunity to be your national President.

As I am writing this in June, therefore I am only anticipating what the next two years will bring to CHEA, and to myself as your President. What new challenges and opportunities will the term bring? How can my skills be applied to them? It is a feeling of anticipation, excitement, and yes, fear, that I am now experiencing as I consider the responsibility before me.

I am pleased that I have an excellent group of experienced executive members to work with, a dynamic and committed Board of Directors, and a capable National Office staff. The Strategic Plan, developed in 1990, is in place to guide our activities. It may require some mid-course corrections, but it is a helpful document to direct and evaluate our progress.

Currently on the two-year horizon are our initiatives toward the International Year of the Family, the new strategic plan for the international development program, and an increase in French language services. Our financial prospects for operating funds are limited. Cost cutting measures and reductions in member services are to be anticipated, if the membership base does not grow. Revenue generating activities are a priority for your Board. Most of us do not relish the idea of revenue generation, but it is essential to retain a reasonable level of activity.

The finance committee is diligent in ensuring that association expenses are kept within current revenues. The federation of most provinces now means that we have a union of local, provincial, and the national associations and should be more able to contain costs and facilitate communication. This structure must be closely monitored to ensure that it is serving our needs at each level. As provincial associations continue to obtain professional status, issues of reciprocity and standards of practice become crucial. Reciprocity,



C'est avec grand plaisir que je vous adresse mon premier message en tant que Présidente de l'ACEF. Alors que je faisais mes études de premier cycle en économie familiale à l'Université de la Colombie-Britannique, il y a de cela presque trente ans, la présidente de l'ACEF de cette époque, Madame Gertrude Gerlach, est venue parler à mon groupe de l'importance du professionnalisme en économie familiale. Son message a sûrement touché une corde sensible chez moi, et j'ai l'honneur aujourd'hui de suivre les traces d'un grand nombre de femmes qui ont grandement contribué à notre profession et que j'admire énormément. Je tiens à vous remercier de me donner la chance d'être votre Présidente nationale.

Puisque j'écris ceci en juin, je ne peux que prévoir ce que les deux prochaines années représenteront à la fois pour l'ACEF et pour moi-même en tant que présidente. Quels nouveaux défis aurons-nous à relever? Comment pourrai-je mettre à profit mes habiletés et capacités? Je me sens impatiente d'agir, excitée et, il faut l'avouer, craintive devant les responsabilités qui m'attendent.

J'ai la chance de pouvoir compter sur une équipe de direction excellente et expérimentée, un Conseil d'administration dynamique et engagé et un personnel efficace au Bureau national. Le Plan stratégique, élaboré en 1990, nous sert déjà de guide dans nos activités. Il se peut que nous soyons obligées d'y apporter quelques corrections à mi-chemin, mais ce document s'avère très utile pour diriger et évaluer nos progrès.

Nous prévoyons, pour les deux prochaines années, des projets reliés à l'Année internationale de la famille, le nouveau plan stratégique pour le programme de développement international et l'augmentation de nos services en français. Nous ne pouvons compter que sur un nombre limité de ressources financières pour nous aider à fonctionner. Si la liste des membres ne s'allonge pas, il nous faudra prévoir des coupures budgétaires et une réduction du nombre des services offerts aux membres. Votre Conseil accorde donc priorité aux projets générant des recettes. Même si l'idée de générer des recettes n'attire pas la majorité d'entre nous, il est important que nous consacrons une partie raisonnable de notre temps à de tels projets.

Le Comité des finances voit à ce que les dépenses de l'association ne dépassent pas les revenus actuels. La fédération de presque toutes les provinces signifie, maintenant, que nous avons réuni des associations locales,

which will allow members to take up professional status when they move to another province, must be negotiated between provincial associations.

The past year marked the official appearance of CHEA at a federal hearing when Ellen Boynton represented us at the Royal Commission on Violence against Women. This was a most appropriate forum to bring to national attention the preventative work that home economists do in the schools, in family life education programs, and in community services to help women and children. I hope to spearhead more of these initiatives. Our new Native and Northern Issues committee indicates how quickly and effectively the association can respond to support member activity. We will continue to work in coalition with other groups with whom we share goals to strengthen and extend our influence.

One of the most challenging aspects of the management of a national professional organization is dealing with change. I am looking forward to what the coming years will bring, and I am confident that we will be a fiscally and socially responsible association with new initiatives to serve both our members and Canadian families. We cannot, however, do this alone.

This is your organization, and unless you support it and participate fully, your chosen profession and your hard-earned education will erode and lose some of its value. When you are contacted, please agree to work with us for a stronger professional association. If you are not contacted, we would encourage you to volunteer! Especially important is the attracting of new members to CHEA. The mentoring process is a symbiotic one, and allows an experienced member the opportunity to encourage and learn from a student or new graduate. Reach out by contacting a university or local and/or provincial branch to link up with a potential member.

I look forward to hearing from you as my term progresses. Your input and evaluation of CHEA activities are essential as we both share the responsibility to keep our national association strong and vital. We have over fifty years of progress and accomplishment to build on — with your help, the future will be ours to determine.

provinciales et nationales et sommes, par le fait même, plus en mesure de contrôler les coûts et de faciliter la communication. Nous devons suivre cette structure de près afin de nous assurer qu'elle répond à nos besoins à tous les niveaux. À mesure que les associations provinciales obtiennent un statut professionnel, les questions reliées à la réciprocité et aux normes de pratique revêtent une importance cruciale. La question de réciprocité, qui permettra aux membres d'accéder à un statut professionnel lors d'un déménagement dans une autre province, doit faire l'objet de négociations entre les associations provinciales.

Au cours de la dernière année, l'ACEF a participé officiellement à une enquête fédérale, alors qu'Ellen Boynton a parlé, en notre nom, devant la Commission royale d'enquête sur la violence faite aux femmes. Ce fut un excellent moyen d'attirer l'attention nationale sur le travail de prévention que les spécialistes en économie familiale font dans les écoles, dans les programmes d'éducation familiale, et dans les services communautaires pour les femmes et les enfants. J'espère avoir l'occasion de lancer d'autres projets de ce genre. Notre nouveau Comité des affaires autochtones et du Nord nous démontre bien à quel point l'association peut réagir rapidement et efficacement pour appuyer les projets des membres. Nous continuerons à travailler en coalition avec d'autres groupes dont nous partageons les buts, afin de renforcer et d'étendre notre influence.

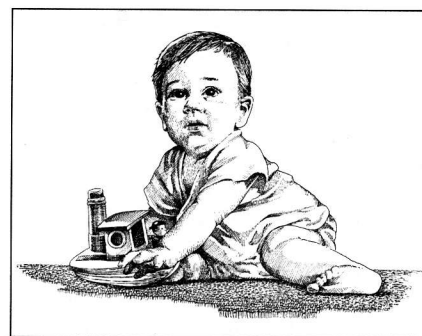
Le changement représente un des aspects les plus stimulants de la tâche d'un directeur d'un organisme professionnel national. J'ai hâte de voir ce que les années à venir nous réservent, et j'ai confiance que nous deviendrons une association financièrement et socialement responsable, menant des nouveaux projets qui serviront les intérêts de nos membres et des familles canadiennes. Cependant, nous ne pouvons pas accomplir ceci sans aide.

Il s'agit ici de votre organisme et, sans votre appui et votre entière collaboration, votre profession et votre formation chèrement acquise s'affaibliront et perdront de leur valeur. Lorsqu'on communiquera avec vous, n'hésitez pas à accepter de travailler avec nous pour solidifier davantage notre association professionnelle. Si on ne communique pas avec vous, nous vous invitons alors à offrir bénévolement vos services! Il est particulièrement important d'attirer des nouveaux membres à l'ACEF. L'expérience de mentor en est une de symbiose, donnant à un membre d'expérience la chance d'encourager une étudiante ou une nouvelle diplômée et, par la même occasion, d'apprendre à son contact. Faites un effort : communiquez avec une université ou une succursale locale ou provinciale pour vous associer à une personne qui pourrait devenir membre.

J'espère recevoir de vos nouvelles pendant mon mandat. Vos commentaires et votre évaluation des projets de l'ACEF comptent pour beaucoup, puisque nous partageons la responsabilité de garder notre association forte et bien en vie. Nous avons derrière nous plus de cinquante années de progrès et de réussites; c'est à nous, toutes ensemble, de déterminer maintenant à quel point ressemblera notre futur.

Child Care Policy in Canada

Brenda J. Boyd and Andrew Robson



Abstract

A review of the role of federal and provincial governments in child care policy in Canada is presented. The ways in which funding responsibility is shared by the federal and provincial governments is discussed and criticisms of this approach noted. The responsibility of the provincial government to license and regulate child care is also examined. To illustrate the aspects of child care regulated at the provincial level, three areas of child care regulations are addressed: health/safety aspects, programming, and staffing issues. The paper is concluded with a comment on the future of national child care policy in Canada.

Résumé

Ce document examine le rôle des gouvernements fédéral et provinciaux en matière de garde d'enfants au Canada. Il étudie les régimes de partage des coûts entre les deux paliers de gouvernement et expose les critiques formulées à cet égard. Il examine également la responsabilité du gouvernement provincial sur le chapitre des permis et de la réglementation des services de garde. Pour illustrer les aspects de la garde d'enfants qui sont réglementés dans les provinces, les auteurs développent trois aspects de la réglementation: santé/sécurité, programmes et dotation en personnel. Le document conclut par un commentaire sur l'avenir de la politique nationale des services de garde au Canada.

The effect of governmental policy on families has been highlighted in previous papers in this series on family policy in Canada. In the introduction to the series, Kieren (1991) emphasized the challenge policy makers face as they attempt to provide for the needs of the diverse and rapidly changing Canadian family. Subsequent papers underscored this idea. Blackie and Harvey (1991) discussed the lack of success in Canada's goal of affordable housing for all families. Pain (1992) examined how changes in divorce law, while generally seen as positive, have resulted in financial difficulties and concerns regarding child maintenance payments

to mothers. Badir (1992) addressed the challenge facing income security policy in Canada. Thus, it becomes clear that policy makers must address the changing needs of families in modern society, but must also recognize that such a task is clearly a difficult one.

In this paper, a specific area of family policy in Canada that reflects changes in the modern family, child care, will be addressed. Child care has received a good deal of attention in the past 20 years as mothers of young children have entered the work force at an increasing rate. The introductory report of the Canadian National Child Care study (Lero, Pence, Shields, Brockman, & Goelman, 1992) revealed that between 55% and 68% of Canadian children under 13 years of age require supplemental care. The need for quality child care continues to be of concern, as evidenced by the reaction to the recent federal budgetary decision to focus on child

poverty rather than on the development of a national child care program.

In this paper, an overview of the type of child care arrangements available across Canada will be provided first. Second, an examination of the roles of federal and provincial government in two aspects of child care policy, funding and regulation, will be undertaken. Finally, a brief comment regarding the current status of a national child care policy will be presented.

Child Care in Canada

Although there are a variety of child care services offered across Canada, in general there are four main types: (a) early childhood centres (full or half-day care for preschoolers), (b), school age day care (before- or after-school care), (c) nursery schools (half-day preschool programs), and (d) home or family day care (care in a private residence recognized by the government) (Ontario Community and Social Services, 1991). Within each type, both licensed and unlicensed care is available. Unlicensed care is not regulated or funded by the government, making it difficult to estimate its actual use. However, some estimates suggest that only 20% of the children in care in Canada are in licensed spaces (Debra Mayer, personal communication, March 19, 1992).

The number of day care spaces in Canada has increased considerably since 1971, when Health and Welfare Canada first collected national day care data. In 1971, 17,391 spaces existed, but by 1990, 320,624 licensed child care spaces were available. This growth represents an 18-fold increase.

Brenda J. Boyd (MSc, Colorado State University; PhD, University of Georgia) is an assistant professor of Family Studies at the University of Manitoba. **Andrew Robson** (BA, University of Manitoba) is a graduate student in Family Studies at the University of Manitoba.

Note: This is the fifth in a series of papers on family issues.

In general, the growth rate over this 20 year period has been between 10% and 16% annually. The growth rate for the 1989 year slowed to 7.56% (National Day Care Information Centre, 1990).

Federal and Provincial Roles in Child Care

In general, the federal and provincial/territorial governments play two major functions regarding child care policy: funding and regulation. Funding is a responsibility shared by federal and provincial governments through a cost-sharing program. Licensing and regulation falls under the jurisdiction of the provinces and territories. As such, the following sections will address the shared funding responsibility and the provincial/territorial role in licensing and regulation.

Funding

Federal Funding

The Federal government is involved in financial assistance to child care in two primary ways, the Canada Assistance Plan (CAP) and income tax credits and deductions. Several other sources of funding will also be briefly discussed, including The Canadian Employment and Immigration Commission (CEIC), Unemployment Insurance, and The Child Care Initiatives Fund (CCIF).

Canada Assistance Program. In 1966, CAP, a comprehensive social service plan designed to replace several smaller programs, was instituted by the federal government. This federal program was set up as a cost-sharing agreement between the provinces/territories and the federal government (Maxwell, 1991). This plan was intended to provide social services to any persons in need or likely to become in need. Thus, child care was just one of many services that could be provided to needy individuals (National Council of Welfare, 1988), and was seen as important in helping welfare recipients to return to the work force by insuring child care opportunities (Yeates, McKenna, Warberg, & Chandler, 1990).

Under CAP, the federal government pays 50% of both certain flat-rate subsidies to centres and user fee subsidies that assist individual families. CAP will share the costs of flat-rate subsidies under certain limited conditions. Capital costs are shared only through depreciation, and start-up costs may sometimes be shared for a particular

special purpose project. A formula which takes into account the percentage of subsidized spaces that the centre has determines eligibility for these flat-rate subsidies (Maxwell, 1991). Each province determines, within these guidelines, how such flat rate subsidies are disbursed. Differences in such provincial decisions will be addressed in the section on provincial funding.

CAP also subsidizes user fees. The province/territory decides how eligibility is determined, using either a needs test or an income test. In the case of the needs test, fees are usually paid on behalf of the individual directly to the service provider (Maxwell, 1991). Care can be provided by for-profit or non-profit licensed day care centres or family day care homes (National Council of Welfare, 1988). If an income test is used to determine eligibility, funds are paid to a centre for operating costs for a specific number of subsidized spaces. In this case, service must be provided by a non-profit agency (Maxwell, 1991). With the exception of Ontario, all provinces and territories use the income test for determining eligibility (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990).

Although CAP remains the main source of federal involvement in child care in Canada, it has been criticized on several accounts (Maxwell, 1991; Yeates, et al., 1990). Because of the cost-sharing nature of the program, the poorer provinces who are unable to afford high levels of spending on child care receive less back from the federal government, creating a cycle of low resources. Middle income families may not be eligible for subsidies; and, even if a family qualifies for subsidy, there is no guarantee of a space in licensed care. Moreover, those interested in a national commitment to child care are concerned about the message implied in funding of child care through a "welfare plan", rather than viewing support of the parental role in a more positive, proactive way.

Child Care Tax Deductions and Credits. The child care expense deduction is a tax credit system which provides parents with a tax break related to their yearly expenditure for child care. Prior to 1988 single parents or the lower-income spouse in a two-parent household were able to reduce their taxable income by up to \$2,000 for each child 14 years of age or younger with a maximum of \$8,000. This amount was raised in the 1988 tax year, with the

new rate at \$4,000 per child under 6 or with special needs, and \$2,000 for each child between 7 and 14 years of age. The maximum deduction was removed at this time (Baker, 1990; National Council of Welfare, 1988). In the 1992 federal budget, presented in February, it was announced that the maximum amount would once again be raised \$1000, to \$5000 for each child under 7 and \$3000 for all other eligible children.

The Child Tax Credit Supplement is also available to parents in low to middle income groups with children under 6 years of age (Maxwell, 1991). This supplement is available to parents who provide care at home or who have non-receipted child care. The supplement amounted to \$100 in 1988 and \$200 since 1989.

Several criticisms of this tax deduction/credit system have been noted (Baker, 1990; National Council of Welfare, 1988; Yeates et al., 1990). First, families often have expenses higher than they can claim. Second, since receipts must be provided to document child care expenses, and some providers may not wish to provide such documentation, families who use such services are only eligible for the supplemental tax credit, at a lower monetary level. Thirdly, families who choose to have one parent stay at home, rather than using child care, receive less tax credit. Last, and perhaps most importantly, not all families benefit equally. Higher income families get the same tax credit as lower income families, who may need it more, and higher income families, because of higher tax rates, receive a greater amount of tax credit.

Canadian Employment and Immigration Commission. As part of the Canadian Job Strategy program, Employment and Immigration Canada provides a supplemental allowance for child care to participants while in training. The parent receives a per diem payment for each dependent, up to the fourth child. The parent must be enrolled in approved courses at community colleges and vocational schools or in government-sponsored language training (Baker, 1990).

Unemployment Insurance. The Unemployment Insurance Act was amended in 1990 to allow for extended parental leave (Maxwell, 1991). Currently, new mothers may take 15 weeks, during which they are eligible to receive 60% of their salary. At the

end of the 15 week period, either parent is eligible for 10 additional weeks under the same financial terms. Adoptive parents are eligible for the 10 week period only.

The Child Care Initiatives Fund. The Child Care Initiatives Fund (CCIF), under the auspices of Health and Welfare Canada, received a 7-year mandate in 1988 to support projects designed to develop new child care services and enhance existing ones (Maxwell, 1991). Priority was given to previously neglected child care needs such as care for children whose parents are shift-workers, native and rural families, and school age children, for example.

Provincial/Territorial Funding

Five general types of support are provided at the provincial/territorial level (Baker, 1990). These include tax relief, subsidized care for low-income families, operating grants for services, grants for start-up or repair, and grants for care of children with special needs. Tax relief comes in the form of provincial tax credits to parents, while the other types of support are administered through the provinces and costs are shared with the federal government under the Canada Assistance Program.

No universal pattern of support from provinces/territories exists, and, in fact, a good deal of variability in the amounts and type of support provided by each of the provinces/territories is apparent (Baker, 1990; Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990; Yeates et al., 1990). Some of the ways provinces differ in provision of funding include the means of determining eligibility for user fee subsidy and eligibility for grants to child care services, the maximum limits on subsidies, and the types of funding available to child care services. For example, most provinces use an income test to determine a family's subsidy eligibility, but Ontario uses a needs test (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990). Similarly, provinces determine which centres are eligible to receive grants and subsidies. Few provinces (e.g., Nova Scotia, Saskatchewan, the Yukon) limit funding to non-profit centres, and with new legislation in place, Saskatchewan will also extend grants to commercial (for-profit) centres as well. However, although a province may fund both commercial and non-profit centres, distinction may be made in amounts of

funding. For example, in Manitoba, commercial centres are funded at a lower level than are non-profit centres (Manitoba Family Services, 1991a). In addition, most provinces set a maximum limit on subsidies available to parents, but the amount varies with such factors as region and age of child. In some provinces, no limits are set (e.g. Newfoundland and Labrador) and in others the limit may be extended up to the full cost of care (e.g. Ontario, Northwest Territories). Moreover, a great deal of variability exists in the types and amounts of grants available in each of the provinces (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990).

Licensing and Regulation

It is the role of the provincial government to license and regulate the operation of child care centres to ensure a child's right to quality care. All provinces and territories have legislation to provide quality standards. In some provinces, legislation specifically addressing child care has been enacted (e.g. Manitoba, Nova Scotia, Quebec), while in others (e.g., New Brunswick) the legislation is included with other social services such as family or homemaker services, not specific to child care (Bates, 1985). It is important to recognize, however, that such legislation only provides a minimum standard below which a program may not be licensed to operate. Standards set by the provinces do not indicate excellence in care, but instead they set a minimal standard of care (Yeates et al., 1990).

Because each province has its own legislation and quality standards, the regulations for operating a child care centre vary from province to province. However, while the individual regulations differ, most provinces address several major areas in their legislation regarding the provision of child care. Bates (1985) identified eight such general groupings, which include the number of children served; definitions of day care; sponsorship (legal status) and parental involvement; health and safety; space, maximum group size, and centre size; child-staff ratios and staff qualification; programming; and nutrition. To more specifically illustrate the aspects of child care which are regulated by the provinces, three such major areas will be addressed below, including health and safety, program content, and staffing.

Health and Safety

All provinces recognize the special concerns which arise when caring for children in a group setting and have developed standards for minimizing these issues. Furthermore, a fair degree of commonality exists in the general kinds of health and safety requirements made across Canada. In general, all provinces/territories require compliance with fire, health, building, and zoning regulations (Bates, 1985). All provinces require sanitation measures be taken and that first aid equipment be on the premises. Moreover, all provinces require that emergency procedures be developed and practised (Ontario Community and Social Services, 1991).

Differences do exist among provinces in some of the regulations regarding health and safety (Bates, 1985). British Columbia, Ontario, and the Yukon require staff immunization, while others (e.g., Nova Scotia, Ontario, the Yukon) require child immunization. Manitoba does not require any immunization record. Some provinces have regulations regarding the administration of medication to a child, while others (e.g. Prince Edward Island, New Brunswick) do not. Moreover, while some degree of general correspondence in the provincial regulations may exist, clearly, the level of precision and specificity which is used in the statement of the regulation will have an impact on the amount of actual similarity in daily practice (Bates, 1985).

Programming

Regulations regarding the content of programming in child care facilities tend to be quite general, with an emphasis on developmentally appropriate activities which address social, emotional, physical, and intellectual development (Bates, 1985; Ontario Community and Social Services, 1991). Some provinces/territories stipulate that certain activities must be included. In Prince Edward Island, Ontario, Manitoba, and the Yukon, rest and outdoor play opportunities must be provided. However, how these activities are provided is not regulated by the governing bodies. In general, child care providers are given much freedom to determine what activities will be offered to children.

Child guidance and discipline is another facet of programming which

has been addressed in legislation by many provinces. British Columbia, Manitoba, the Yukon, Northwest Territories, and Prince Edward Island require written behavior management policies. In general, physical punishment, verbally or emotionally degrading discipline, or the use of isolation are not allowed, and New Brunswick and Manitoba state quite specifically behaviors which are not allowable such as striking or shaking (Bates, 1985).

Staffing

The staffing of child care facilities has received the greatest amount of attention of all issues related to quality care for children. This attention comes both from policy makers and researchers. Research has demonstrated that staff training and child to staff ratios are important predictors of the quality of child care (Belsky, 1984). However, the difficulty in obtaining and maintaining well-qualified staff in the face of low wages and benefits and the stresses of doing child care have also been recognized (Whitebook, Howes, Darrah, & Friedman, 1982). Provinces/territories address this issue through two general types of regulations: those regarding staff-child ratios and those regarding staff qualifications.

Ratios. There is a great deal of diversity in the staff-child ratios permitted across Canada (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990). For example, when examining ratios for children aged 12 to 18 months, British Columbia and Newfoundland do not permit group care under 18 months at all, three provinces (Alberta, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward Island) stipulate one adult for every three children aged 12 to 18 months, Manitoba and the Yukon require one adult for every four children 12 to 18 months of age, Quebec and the Northwest Territories allow a 1:5 ratio, and Ontario has a 3:10 ratio for children in this age group. Examination of another age group, children aged 3 to 5 years of age, shows a similar disparity in the staff-to-child ratios across Canada. These ratios range from 1:7 (New Brunswick) to 1:10 (Saskatchewan and Prince Edward Island). Clearly, much diversity in staff-child ratios exists.

Qualifications. As with other aspects of child care regulations, staff qualifications differ from province to province. Alberta, British Columbia, and Manitoba utilize hierarchical clas-

sification systems which recognize increasing levels of training and/or experience. For example, Manitoba has instituted a four-tiered system: A Child Care Assistant classification is granted if education required for classification at a higher level has not been met; a Child Care Worker I classification requires a grade 12 diploma; A Child Care Worker II classification requires a two year training program; and a Child Care Worker III classification requires a four-year degree (Manitoba Family Services, 1991b). Other provinces (e.g. Newfoundland and Saskatchewan) have less fine grained classification systems which simply distinguish between directors and direct service providers (Newfoundland Social Services, 1990; Saskatchewan Social Services, 1990).

As illustrated above, the classification system of child care workers is often based on educational background. Some provinces, however, recognize experience in determining the classification level of a child care provider. Manitoba's Competency Based Assessment program provides a structured system for assessing the skills obtained through work experience in order to classify a child care provider on the basis of demonstrated skills, rather than educational background (Manitoba Family Services, 1986). Other provinces such as Prince Edward Island and Newfoundland recognize experience in determining classification level either in addition to or in place of educational background (Newfoundland Social Services, 1990; Prince Edward Island Health and Social Services, 1988).

However, even if congruence in the number of levels exists among the provinces, the training or experience required to attain these classification levels may differ. For example, to be called a child care worker in Saskatchewan, Newfoundland, New Brunswick, or the Northwest Territories, one must have only a high school diploma (New Brunswick Health and Community Services, 1985; Newfoundland Social Services, 1990; Northwest Territories Social Services, 1987). However, a child worker of the same classification level in Alberta, Manitoba, and Ontario is required to have a two year diploma in Early Childhood Education (Alberta Family and Social Services, 1990; Manitoba Family Services, 1991b; Ontario Community and Social Services, 1990). Similarly, requirements to hold a posi-

tion as a director of a child care centre differ across Canada. In Manitoba and Prince Edward Island, directors are required to have a four year university degree or equivalent (Manitoba Family Services, 1991b; Prince Edward Island Health and Social Services, 1988), while in Nova Scotia and Saskatchewan directors must only have a one-year early childhood education certificate (Nova Scotia Community Services, 1991; Saskatchewan Social Services, 1990).

These three components of child care regulations in Canada, health/safety, programming, and staffing are only examples of the numerous ways provinces have attempted to insure quality child care. Although it is apparent that quality care is of concern to the provincial governments, it is also the case that uniform child care service across the country seems unlikely.

The Future of Child Care Policy

Currently, a good deal of discussion surrounds the issue of child care policy in Canada. Much of it is driven by the concerns of child care advocates calling for a national child care policy (Bascombe, 1992; Canadian Child Day Care Federation, 1991). Advocates of a national policy are calling for the federal government to take a stronger position on insuring quality care; that is, identify and support quality standards at a national level. These advocates are also interested in having national standards for the training of child care providers and in increased funding that views quality child care as a right of all families rather than a welfare service for needy families. The review of the roles of federal and provincial governments presented here makes clear that much disparity exists in the availability, regulation, and consequently, quality of child care in Canada. Such disparity will continue to exist across Canada without such a national policy.

Over the past 20 years, much work has been done to lay a foundation for a national child care policy (Maxwell, 1991). The two national child care conferences in 1971 and 1982, the creation of the Canadian Child Day Care Advocacy Association, the Cooke Task Force on child care, the Martin report, creation of the Canadian Child Day Care Federation, and the introduction of the National Strategy on Child Care provided important support to the

Canada Child Care Act. When the act failed to pass the Senate in 1988, hopes for a national child care policy dimmed considerably. However, the issue of a national policy for the care of children remains an important one for family policy makers in Canada. Advocates of quality child care for all of Canada's children have not given up hope and continue to lobby for and to educate about the need for a national child care policy. □

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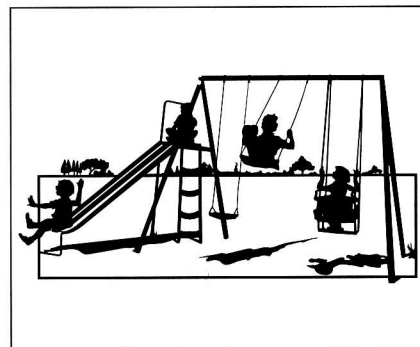


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La politique des services de garde d'enfants au Canada

Brenda J. Boyd et Andrew Robson



Abstract

A review of the role of federal and provincial governments in child care policy in Canada is presented. The ways in which funding responsibility is shared by the federal and provincial governments is discussed and criticisms of this approach noted. The responsibility of the provincial government to licence and regulate child care is also examined. To illustrate the aspects of child care regulated at the provincial level, three areas of child care regulations are addressed: health/safety aspects, programming, and staffing issues. The paper is concluded with a comment on the future of national child care policy in Canada.

Résumé

Ce document examine le rôle des gouvernements fédéral et provinciaux en matière de garde d'enfants au Canada. Il étudie les régimes de partage des coûts entre les deux paliers de gouvernement et expose les critiques formulées à cet égard. Il examine également la responsabilité du gouvernement provincial sur le chapitre des permis et de la réglementation des services de garde. Pour illustrer les aspects de la garde d'enfants qui sont réglementés dans les provinces, les auteurs développent trois aspects de la réglementation: santé/sécurité, programmes et dotation en personnel. Le document conclut par un commentaire sur l'avenir de la politique nationale des services de garde au Canada.

Les documents précédents de cette série sur la politique de la famille au Canada ont fait ressortir l'incidence de la politique gouvernementale sur les familles. Dans l'introduction de la série, Kieren (1991) a insisté sur le défi auquel font face les décideurs en tentant de répondre aux besoins de la famille canadienne diversifiée et en rapide évolution. Les documents suivants ont souligné cette idée. Blackie et Harvey (1991) ont fait valoir que le Canada n'avait pas réussi à accomplir son objectif d'offrir des logements abordables à toutes les familles. Pain (1992) a examiné la façon dont les modifications à la loi du divorce, bien

que perçues d'un bon oeil en général, ont entraîné des difficultés financières et suscité des préoccupations au sujet du versement des allocations d'entretien des enfants aux mères. Badir (1992) a cerné le défi auquel doit répondre la politique de sécurité du revenu au Canada. Il devient donc évident que les décideurs doivent tenir compte des besoins changeants des familles dans la société moderne, sans oublier pour autant la difficulté manifeste de cette tâche.

Le présent document s'attache à un aspect particulier de la politique de la famille au Canada, qui reflète les changements que subissent les familles d'aujourd'hui et la garde des enfants. Depuis une vingtaine d'années, on s'attarde beaucoup à la question de la garde des enfants, étant donné le nombre croissant des mères de jeunes enfants dans le marché du travail. L'aperçu de l'Étude nationale canadienne sur la garde des enfants (Lero,

Pence, Shields, Brockman, et Goelman, 1992) révèle qu'entre 55 % et 68 % des enfants canadiens de moins de 13 ans nécessitent des services de garde supplémentaires. Le besoin de services de garde de qualité fait encore l'objet de préoccupation, comme en témoignent les réactions à la récente décision budgétaire du gouvernement fédéral de se pencher sur la pauvreté des enfants plutôt que sur l'élaboration d'un programme national de services de garde d'enfants.

Ce document donne, en premier lieu, un aperçu du type de services de garde d'enfants qu'on retrouve un peu partout au pays. En deuxième lieu, il examine les rôles des gouvernements fédéral et provinciaux à l'égard de deux aspects de la politique des services de garde d'enfants, c'est-à-dire le financement et la réglementation. Enfin, il commente brièvement l'état actuel de la politique nationale des services de garde d'enfants.

La garde d'enfants au Canada

Bien qu'il existe une diversité de services de garde d'enfants au Canada, ceux-ci se regroupent en général en quatre grandes catégories : a) les centres pour petits enfants (enfants d'âge préscolaire, pour des journées complètes ou des demi-journées); b) les services de garde d'enfants d'âge scolaire (avant ou après l'école); c) les pré-maternelles (programmes préscolaires d'une demi-journée); et d) la garde en milieu familial (dans une résidence privée agréée par le gouvernement) (Ontario Community and Social Services, 1991). Chacune de ces quatre catégories comprend des services avec ou sans permis d'exploitation. Les services offerts sans permis ne sont pas

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Nota: Ce document est le cinquième d'une série portant sur les questions de la famille.

réglementés ni financés par le gouvernement, d'où la difficulté d'en évaluer l'utilisation réelle. Toutefois, selon certaines estimations, seulement 20 % des enfants en situation de garde au Canada sont pris en charge par des centres opérant avec permis (Debra Mayer, communication personnelle, le 19 mars 1992).

Le nombre de places en garderie au Canada a considérablement augmenté depuis la première collecte de données nationales à ce sujet par Santé et Bien-être social Canada, en 1971. Cette année-là, on avait dénombré 17 391 places; en 1990, ce chiffre était passé à 320 624, soit 18 fois plus qu'en 1971. D'une manière générale, le taux annuel de croissance pendant cette période de 20 ans a varié entre 10 % et 16 %. Cependant, en 1989, le taux de croissance a ralenti à 7,56 % (Centre national d'information sur la garde de jour, 1990).

Rôle des gouvernements fédéral et provinciaux en matière de garde d'enfants

D'une manière générale, le gouvernement fédéral et ceux des provinces et des territoires exercent deux grandes fonctions dans le cadre de la politique de garde d'enfants : le financement et la réglementation. Le financement est une responsabilité partagée par les deux paliers de gouvernement au moyen d'un programme de partage des frais. L'attribution des permis et la réglementation relèvent de la compétence des provinces et des territoires. Les sections qui suivent abordent la responsabilité partagée du financement et le rôle des provinces et des territoires en matière de permis et de réglementation.

Le financement

Financement fédéral

La contribution financière du gouvernement fédéral à la garde d'enfants est assurée principalement par le Régime d'assistance publique du Canada (RAPC) et par des crédits et déductions d'impôt sur le revenu. Un bon nombre d'autres sources de fonds seront aussi brièvement mentionnées, notamment la Commission de l'emploi et de l'immigration du Canada (CEIC), l'Assurance-chômage et la Caisse d'aide aux projets en matière de garde des enfants.

Régime d'assistance publique du Canada. En 1966, le gouvernement fédéral instituait le RAPC, un régime complet de services sociaux destiné à

remplacer plusieurs petits programmes. Ce programme fédéral a pris la forme d'une entente de partage de frais entre les provinces et les territoires et le gouvernement fédéral (Maxwell, 1991). Le RAPC visait à fournir des services sociaux à toute personne nécessitant ou susceptible de la devenir. La garde d'enfants devenait donc un parmi de nombreux services pouvant être dispensés aux personnes dans le besoin (Conseil national du bien-être social, 1988) et était considérée comme un service important, puisque cela pouvait aider les assistés sociaux à retourner au travail en leur donnant la possibilité de faire garder leurs enfants (Yeates, McKenna, Warberg, et Chandler, 1990).

En vertu du RAPC, le gouvernement fédéral paie 50 % de certaines subventions fixes versées aux centres et des allocations qui touchent les familles pour payer leurs frais d'utilisation. Le RAPC partagera le coût des subventions fixes aux termes de certaines restrictions. Les coûts des immobilisations sont assumés uniquement par le biais de l'amortissement et les frais de démarrage peuvent parfois être partagés dans le cadre d'un projet spécial. Pour déterminer l'admissibilité à ces subventions fixes, on utilise une formule qui tient compte du pourcentage de places subventionnées offertes par le centre (Maxwell, 1991). Chaque province établit, à l'intérieur de ces lignes directrices, comment elle versera les subventions en question. Nous aborderons les différents modes de paiement adoptés par les provinces, dans la section sur le financement provincial.

Le RAPC subventionne aussi les frais d'utilisation. La province ou le territoire décide de l'admissibilité des bénéficiaires à l'aide d'un examen des besoins ou des revenus. Dans le cas de l'examen des besoins, les frais sont habituellement versés directement au fournisseur de services au nom du bénéficiaire (Maxwell, 1991). Les services peuvent être dispensés par des garderies ou des familles de garde agréées, qu'elles soient à but lucratif ou non (Conseil national du bien-être social, 1988). Si l'admissibilité est fondée sur les résultats de l'examen des revenus, les fonds versés au centre servent à assumer les frais d'exploitation d'un nombre précis de places subventionnées. Dans ce cas, le service doit être fourni par une agence à but non lucratif (Maxwell, 1991). À l'exception de l'Ontario, les provinces et les territoires utilisent l'examen des

revenus pour déterminer l'admissibilité (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990).

Bien que le RAPC demeure la principale source de contribution du gouvernement fédéral en matière de garde d'enfants, on l'a critiqué à plusieurs occasions (Maxwell, 1991; Yeates et al., 1990). Étant donné qu'il s'agit d'un programme à frais partagés, les provinces pauvres qui ne peuvent réserver des sommes importantes à la garde d'enfants reçoivent moins d'argent du gouvernement fédéral, créant ainsi un cercle vicieux. Les familles à revenu moyen peuvent être inadmissibles aux subventions; de plus, même si une famille réunit les conditions voulues, rien ne garantit qu'elle trouvera une place dans un centre agréé. En outre, les partisans d'une participation nationale dans ce domaine s'inquiètent du message implicite véhiculé par un service de garde axé sur un financement assuré par un "programme de bien-être social" plutôt que sur un rôle plus positif et plus proactif des parents.

Déductions et crédits d'impôt pour frais de garde d'enfants. La déduction des frais de garde d'enfants est un allègement fiscal accordé aux parents à l'égard de leurs déboursés annuels au titre de la garde d'enfants. Avant 1988, un parent seul ou le conjoint touchant le revenu le moins élevé dans un ménage biparental étaient en mesure de diminuer leur revenu imposable d'un montant pouvant atteindre 2 000 \$ pour chaque enfant de 14 ans ou moins, et ce jusqu'à un maximum de 8 000 \$. Pendant l'année d'imposition 1988, ce montant a augmenté à 4 000 \$ par enfant de moins de 6 ans ou ayant des besoins spéciaux, et à 2 000 \$ par enfant de 7 à 14 ans. Du même coup on éliminait la déduction maximale (Baker, 1990; Conseil national du bien-être, 1988). Lors du budget fédéral de 1992, présenté en février, le gouvernement a annoncé une autre augmentation de 1 000 \$, ce qui a fait passer le montant maximal à 5 000 \$ pour chaque enfant de moins de 7 ans et à 3 000 \$ pour chaque autre enfant admissible.

Le supplément du crédit d'impôt pour enfants s'adresse également aux parents à faible revenu ou à revenu moyen qui ont des enfants de moins de 6 ans (Maxwell, 1991). Ce supplément est accessible aux parents qui assurent la garde à domicile ou qui ne reçoivent aucun reçu de frais de garde. De 100 \$ en 1988, ce supplément est de 200 \$ depuis 1989.

On a relevé plusieurs critiques à l'égard de ce système de crédits/déductions (Baker, 1990; Conseil national du bien-être social, 1988; Yeates et al., 1990). Tout d'abord, les familles dépensent souvent plus qu'elles ne peuvent réclamer. Deuxièmement, vu que les demandes de crédit doivent être appuyées par des reçus et que certains fournisseurs ne veulent pas en remettre, les familles qui vivent une telle situation ne peuvent se prévaloir que du faible crédit d'impôt supplémentaire. Troisièmement, les familles dont l'un des parents choisit de demeurer à la maison plutôt que de faire appel à un service de garde touchent un crédit d'impôt moins élevé. Enfin, et sans doute l'aspect le plus important, le régime n'est pas égal pour toutes les familles. En effet, les familles à revenu élevé reçoivent le même crédit d'impôt que les familles à faible revenus qui, elles, peuvent en avoir plus besoin. De plus, les familles mieux nanties obtiennent un crédit d'impôt supérieur à cause de leur taux d'imposition plus élevé.

Commission canadienne de l'emploi et de l'immigration. Dans le cadre du programme Planification de l'emploi, Emploi et Immigration Canada verse aux participants en formation une allocation supplémentaire de garde d'enfants. Le parent touche une indemnité journalière pour chaque personne à charge, et ce jusqu'au quatrième enfant. Le parent doit être inscrit à des cours approuvés dans un collège communautaire ou une école de métiers ou à des cours de langue parrainés par le gouvernement (Baker, 1990).

Assurance-chômage. La Loi sur l'assurance-chômage a été modifiée en 1990 pour permettre les congés parentaux prolongés (Maxwell, 1991). À l'heure actuelle, les nouvelles mères ont droit à quinze semaines de congé et à 60 % de leur rémunération. Cette période écoulée, l'un des deux parents peut prendre dix semaines de congé additionnelles, aux mêmes conditions salariales. Les parents adoptifs n'ont droit qu'au congé de dix semaines.

Caisse d'aide aux projets en matière de garde des enfants. En 1988, cette caisse, qui fonctionne sous les auspices de Santé et Bien-être social Canada, recevait un mandat de sept ans l'enjoignant d'appuyer les projets destinés à mettre sur pied de nouveaux services de garde d'enfants ou à améliorer les services existants (Maxwell, 1991). On a donné priorité

aux besoins jusqu'alors négligés, tels les enfants de travailleurs de quart, les familles autochtones et rurales et les enfants d'âge scolaire.

Financement provincial/territorial

Les provinces et les territoires offrent cinq grands types d'aide (Baker, 1990) : un allègement fiscal, des services subventionnés pour les familles à faible revenu, des subventions d'exploitation de services, des subventions de démarrage ou de réparation et des subventions destinées à la garde d'enfants ayant des besoins spéciaux. L'allègement fiscal prend la forme d'un crédit d'impôt provincial accordé aux parents; quant aux autres types d'aide, ils sont administrés par les provinces et les coûts sont paragés avec le gouvernement fédéral aux termes du Régime d'assistance publique du Canada.

Il n'y a aucune formule universelle d'aide au sein des provinces et territoires. De fait, les montants et le genre d'aide varient énormément d'une province à l'autre (Baker, 1990; Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990; Yeates et al., 1990). Parmi ces écarts, on remarque la méthode utilisée pour déterminer l'admissibilité aux subventions de frais de garde et aux subventions de services de garde, le montant maximal des subventions et le type de financement offert aux services de garde d'enfants. Par exemple, la plupart des provinces recourent à un examen des revenus pour déterminer l'admissibilité d'une famille à des subventions; par contre, l'Ontario procède à un examen des besoins (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990). De la même façon, les provinces déterminent l'admissibilité des centres aux subventions. Très peu d'entre elles (par ex. la Nouvelle-Écosse, la Saskatchewan et le Yukon) restreignent leur aide aux centres à but non lucratif; grâce à une nouvelle loi, la Saskatchewan étendra également ses subventions aux centres commerciaux (à but lucratif). Toutefois, bien qu'une province puisse financer des centres à but lucratif ou non, il peut lui arriver d'accorder des montants différents. Par exemple, le Manitoba verse moins aux centres commerciaux qu'aux centres à but non lucratif (Manitoba Family Services, 1991a). De plus, la plupart des provinces fixent une limite aux subventions versées aux parents, mais le montant varie selon divers facteurs, tels que la région et l'âge de l'enfant. Certaines provinces (par ex. Terre-Neuve et le Labrador) n'établissent

par de limite, tandis que d'autres peuvent verser des montants correspondant au coût total des frais de garde (comme l'Ontario et les Territoires du Nord-Ouest). De plus, le type et le montant des subventions varient énormément d'une province à l'autre (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990).

Permis et réglementation

Le gouvernement provincial a pour rôle d'autoriser et de réglementer l'exploitation des centres de garde d'enfants afin de garantir des services de qualité auxquels les enfants ont droit. Les provinces et les territoires ont tous des lois qui prévoient des normes de qualité. Certaines provinces ont adopté des lois qui touchent particulièrement la garde d'enfants (comme le Manitoba, la Nouvelle-Écosse et le Québec), tandis que d'autres (comme le Nouveau-Brunswick) les ont intégrées à d'autres services sociaux, tels les services familiaux ou les aides familiales, qui ne se rattachent pas uniquement à la garde d'enfants (Bates, 1985). Cependant, il importe d'admettre que ces lois ne font que prévoir une norme minimale à laquelle doit satisfaire un programme pour obtenir un permis d'exploitation. Les normes fixées par les provinces ne sont pas un gage d'excellence, mais plutôt une norme minimale de qualité des services (Yeates et al., 1990).

Étant donné que les lois et les normes de qualité varient d'une province à l'autre, les règlements d'exploitation d'un centre de garde d'enfants varieront également. Toutefois, les lois de la plupart des provinces abordent plusieurs grands domaines relatifs à garde d'enfants. Bates (1985) a relevé huit catégories générales, qui comprennent : le nombre d'enfants inscrits; la définition de la garde d'enfants; le parrainage (situation juridique) et la participation des parents; la santé et la sécurité; le nombre de places, la taille maximale des groupes et celle des centres; le rapport enfants/employés et la compétence des employés; les programmes; et la nutrition. Pour mieux illustrer les aspects des services de garde d'enfants réglementés par les provinces, nous examinerons ci-après trois de ces catégories: la santé et la sécurité, le contenu des programmes et le personnel.

Santé et sécurité

Toutes les provinces admettent que la garde d'enfants en groupe suscite

des préoccupations particulières; afin de les atténuer au minimum, elles ont mis au point certaines normes. De plus, il existe certains points communs aux exigences générales imposées dans les domaines de la santé et de la sécurité au Canada. Ainsi, les provinces et les territoires exigent que les centres de garde observent les règlements en matière d'incendier, de santé, de construction et de zonage (Bates, 1985), qu'ils adoptent des mesures d'hygiène, qu'ils aient sur place une trousse de premiers soins et qu'ils élaborent et mettent à l'essai des mesures d'urgence (Ontario Community and Social Services, 1991).

On note toutefois des écarts au niveau des règlements provinciaux touchant la santé et la sécurité (Bates, 1985). La Colombie-Britannique, l'Ontario et le Yukon exigent l'immunisation du personnel, tandis que d'autres (comme la Nouvelle-Écosse, l'Ontario et le Yukon) exigent celle des enfants. Le Manitoba ne demande aucune fiche d'immunisation. Certaines provinces ont adopté des règlements sur l'administration des médicaments aux enfants, alors que d'autres n'en ont pas (par ex. l'Île-du-Prince-Édouard, le Nouveau-Brunswick). De plus, bien que les règlements des provinces s'équivalent en général, le niveau de précision et de spécificité dans l'énoncé des règlements a clairement des répercussions sur la similitude réelle des pratiques quotidiennes de chaque centre (Bates, 1985).

Programmes

Les règlements sur le contenu des programmes mis en place par les installations de garde d'enfants tendent à être assez généraux tout en insistant sur des activités qui favorisent le développement social, émotif, physique et intellectuel (Bates, 1985; Ontario Community and Social Services, 1991). Quelques provinces et territoires exigent l'inclusion d'activités précises; par exemple, l'Île-du-Prince-Édouard, l'Ontario, le Manitoba et le Yukon exigent des périodes de repos et de jeu à l'extérieur sans toutefois préciser la manière dont ces activités doivent être menées. D'une façon générale, les responsables de services de garde d'enfants jouissent d'une grande liberté dans le choix des activités offertes aux enfants.

Bien des provinces ont réglementé l'orientation des enfants et la discipline, qui représentent une autre facette des programmes. La Colombie-

Britannique, le Manitoba, le Yukon, les Territoires du Nord-Ouest et l'Île-du-Prince-Édouard exigent une politique écrite décrivant la gestion du comportement. En général, les punitions physiques, toute forme de discipline dégradante — verbale ou émotive — de même que l'isolement sont interdits. Le Nouveau-Brunswick et le Manitoba sont fort précis quant aux comportements inadmissibles, tels que frapper ou secouer un enfant (Bates, 1985).

Dotation en personnel

De toutes les questions liées à la qualité des services de garde d'enfants, c'est la dotation en personnel de ces installations qui a le plus retenu l'attention des décisionnaires et des chercheurs. Des études ont révélé que la formation du personnel et les ratios enfants/employés s'avéraient d'importants facteurs permettant de prévoir la qualité des services de garde (Belsky, 1984). Cependant, on reconnaît également la difficulté de recruter et de conserver du personnel qualifié, malgré les salaires et avantages sociaux peu élevés et le stress associé à ce type d'occupation (Whitebook, Howes, Darrah, et Friedman, 1982). Pour régler ce problème, les provinces et les territoires ont adopté deux catégories générales de règlements, certains reliés au ratio enfants/employés et d'autres, à la formation et la compétence du personnel.

Ratios. Les ratios enfants/employés autorisés au Canada varient énormément (Childcare Resource and Research Unit, 1990). Ainsi, lorsqu'on examine les ratios des enfants de 12 à 18 mois, on constate que la Colombie-Britannique et Terre-Neuve ne permettent pas la garde collective d'enfants de moins de 18 mois; par contre trois provinces (l'Alberta, le Nouveau-Brunswick et l'Île-du-Prince-Édouard) stipulent un ratio de 1:3 (un adulte pour trois enfants); le Manitoba et le Yukon, 1:4; le Québec et les Territoires du Nord-Ouest, 1:5; et l'Ontario, 3:10. On constate une disparité similaire dans les ratios liés aux enfants de 3 à 5 ans, puisqu'ils s'échelonnent de 1:7 (Nouveau-Brunswick) à 1:10 (Saskatchewan et l'Île-du-Prince-Édouard). La grande diversité des ratios enfants/employés apparaît donc évidente.

Compétence. À l'instar d'autres aspects de la réglementation des centres de garde d'enfants, celui de la formation et la compétence du personnel varie d'une province à l'autre. L'Alberta, la Colombie-Britannique et

le Manitoba recourent à des systèmes de classification hiérarchique qui tiennent compte de niveaux croissants de formation et d'expérience. À titre d'exemple, le Manitoba a mis sur pied un système à quatre niveaux : le titre de préposé à la garde d'enfants est accordé lorsque le candidat n'a pas la scolarité exigée à l'échelon supérieur; un travailleur des services à l'enfance de niveau I doit détenir un diplôme de 12^e année; celui de niveau II doit avoir une formation de deux ans et celui de niveau III, un diplôme obtenu à la suite d'un cours de quatre ans (Manitoba Family Services, 1991b). D'autres provinces n'ont pas de système aussi perfectionnés, se limitant simplement à faire la distinction entre les directeurs et les responsables de services directs (Newfoundland Social Services, 1990; Saskatchewan Social Services, 1990).

Comme on vient de l'indiquer, le système de classification des travailleurs de services de garde repose souvent sur les antécédents scolaires, quoique certaines provinces tiennent compte de l'expérience. Au Manitoba, le programme d'évaluation des compétences assure la structure nécessaire à l'évaluation des compétences acquises au travail, afin de classer un travailleur de service de garde d'après ses aptitudes manifestes plutôt que son bagage scolaire (Manitoba Family Services, 1986). D'autres provinces, comme l'Île-du-Prince-Édouard et Terre-Neuve, tiennent compte de l'expérience d'un employé pour établir sa classification, en plus ou en remplacement de sa formation scolaire (Newfoundland Social Services, 1990; Prince Edward Island Health and Social Services, 1988).

Même s'il existe une congruence du nombre de niveaux entre les provinces, la formation ou l'expérience requises pour atteindre de tels niveaux peuvent varier. Ainsi, pour pouvoir porter le titre de travailleur des services à l'enfance en Saskatchewan, à Terre-Neuve, au Nouveau-Brunswick ou dans les Territoires du Nord-Ouest, il faut posséder un diplôme d'études secondaires (New Brunswick Health and Community Services, 1985; Newfoundland Social Services, 1990; Northwest Territories Social Services, 1987). Toutefois, un travailleur de même niveau en Alberta, au Manitoba et en Ontario doit avoir suivi avec succès un cours de deux ans en éducation des jeunes enfants (Alberta Family and Social Services, 1990; Manitoba Family

Services, 1991b; Services sociaux et communautaires de l'Ontario, 1990). De la même façon, les directeurs de centres de garde d'enfants doivent satisfaire à des exigences différentes selon la province. Au Manitoba et à l'Île-du-Prince-Édouard, ces personnes doivent posséder un diplôme universitaire sanctionnant quatre années de cours, ou l'équivalent (Manitoba Family Services, 1991b; Prince Edward Island Health and Social Services, 1988), tandis que la Nouvelle-Écosse et la Saskatchewan n'exigent qu'un certificat d'études en éducation des jeunes enfants obtenu à la fin d'un cours d'un an (Nova Scotia Community Services, 1991; Saskatchewan Social Services, 1990).

Ces trois composantes de la réglementation des services de garde d'enfants au Canada — santé/sécurité, programmes et dotation en personnel — ne sont que quelques exemples des nombreux moyens mis en oeuvre par les provinces pour garantir des services de qualité aux enfants. S'il est évident que les gouvernements provinciaux se préoccupent de la qualité des services, il semble peu probable qu'on s'achemine vers l'uniformité dans les services de garde d'enfants au Canada.

L'avenir de la politique des services de garde d'enfants

La question de la politique des services de garde au Canada fait actuellement l'objet de nombreux débats suscités, en grande partie, par les partisans d'une politique nationale (Bascombe, 1992; Fédération canadienne des services de garde d'enfants, 1991). Ces derniers insistent pour que le gouvernement fédéral adopte une position plus ferme sur la garantie de services de qualité, en définissant et en appuyant des normes de qualité à l'échelle nationale. Ces partisans désirent également que des normes nationales régissent la formation des responsables de services de garde, qu'on augmente le financement et qu'on reconnaisse que toutes les familles ont droit à des services de garde de qualité plutôt que de les considérer uniquement comme un service de bien-être social pour les familles nécessiteuses. Cette étude du rôle du gouvernement fédéral et des provinces

démontre clairement l'écart qui existe au Canada en ce qui a trait à la disponibilité, à la réglementation et, partant, à la qualité des services de garde. Cet écart durera tant qu'on ne se dotera pas d'une politique nationale.

Depuis les vingt dernières années, il s'est fait beaucoup de travail pour établir le fondement d'une politique nationale en matière de garde d'enfants (Maxwell, 1991). Les deux conférences sur les services de garde d'enfants tenues en 1971 et en 1982, la création de l'Association canadienne pour la promotion des services de garde d'enfants, le groupe d'étude Cooke sur la garde des enfants, le rapport Martin, la création de la Fédération canadienne des services de garde d'enfants et la mise en place de la Stratégie nationale sur la garde d'enfants ont procuré un appui de taille à la Loi sur les services de garde d'enfants au Canada. Lorsque le Sénat a fait avorter ce projet de loi en 1988, les espoirs de se doter d'une politique nationale en la matière se sont grandement atténués. Toutefois, la question d'une politique nationale sur les services de garde d'enfants demeure importante pour les personnes responsables d'élaborer des politiques familiales au Canada. Loin d'avoir perdu espoir, les groupes qui réclament des services de garde de qualité pour tous les enfants du Canada continuent de faire pression et d'informer la population sur la nécessité d'adopter une politique nationale pour les services de garde d'enfants. □

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What Futurists Believe: Implications for Home Economists

Shawna Berenbaum

Abstract

Futurists are individuals seriously interested in anticipating what lies ahead. They identify events that might occur in the future, and in doing so, help people decide what they want to happen. Futurists agree on increasing complexity in the world, the dominance of science and technology, the rise of global interdependence, the decline of education, the aging of the population, and the rise of the information society. However, there are disagreements and for the most part little unanimity in their outlook. The challenges that the future will present to home economists will be many. Home economists will need to expect change, understand change, change themselves, and work to change society.

Résumé

Les futurologues sont des personnes sérieusement intéressées à dégager de leurs recherches des éléments de prévision. Ils déterminent les événements qui peuvent se produire dans le futur et, ce faisant, aident les gens à choisir ce qu'ils désirent voir arriver. Ces spécialistes du futur s'entendent sur la complexité croissante du monde, la dominance des sciences et de la technologie, l'augmentation de l'interdépendance globale, le déclin de l'éducation, le vieillissement de la population et l'essor de la société de l'information. Il existe cependant bien des désaccords, et l'unanimité est loin de régner autour de leurs prévisions. Les spécialistes en économie familiale auront de nombreux défis à relever dans le futur et devront s'attendre à vivre des changements, à comprendre ces changements, à changer eux-mêmes et à travailler à changer la société.



Futurists are scientists, scholars, government officials, business leaders, and others who are seriously interested in anticipating what lies ahead. There is no fully accepted term for their emerging field, but a variety of terms are used: future studies, futurism, futuristics, futurology, conjecture, futures, and futures analysis (The Art of Forecasting, 1991). Related fields sharing similar methods and concerns are called by such names as strategic forecasting, issues manage-

ment, trend analysis, impact assessment, and long-range planning (The Art of Forecasting, 1991).

Principles of Futurism

The modern futurist movement began developing rapidly during the 1960s (Cornish, 1977). Since then, certain basic principles have emerged that typify the thinking of today's futurists. Fundamental to all futurist thinking is the perception that the universe is all one piece, rather than an aggregation of independent, unconnected units (Cornish, 1977). Nothing in society exists all by itself; each element is connected to every other element. Thus, occurrences in one element (economic, social, technological, geophysical, etc.) influences and is influenced by other elements, in an indeterminate wide range of ways. This wholistic

perspective views humans as much a part of nature as anything else in the universe.

Futurists tend to have a global perspective extending 5-50+ years ahead (Cornish, 1977). Most people are usually occupied with their immediate concerns — matters that affect only family or friends over a short period of time (Meadows, 1975; Cornish 1977).

In addition to paying little attention to the future, most people tend not to recognize gradual change (Meadows, 1974; Cornish, 1977; Harper, 1989). For example, a 2% increase per year in air pollution might attract little notice, yet it means that air pollution will double in 34 years (Cornish, 1977). In 1650 the population numbered about 0.5 billion, and it was growing at a rate of approximately 0.3 percent per year, corresponding to a doubling time of

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Table 1. Futurists profiled in *What Futurists Believe*^a

Roy Amara	Richard D. Lamm
Robert U. Ayres	Michael Marien
Daniel Bell	Dennis L. Meadows
Kenneth E. Boulding	James A. Ogilvy
Arthur C. Clarke	Gerard K. O'Neill
Peter Drucker	John R. Pierce
Victor C. Ferkiss	Peter Schwartz
Barry B. Hughes	Robert Theobald
Alexander King	

^aCoates, J., & Jarratt, J. (1989). *What futurists believe*. Bethesda, MD: World Future Society.

nearly 250 years (Meadows, 1974). In 1970 the population totalled 3.6 billion and the rate of growth was 2.1 percent per year. The doubling time at this growth rate is 33 years. The implications of these so-called gradual changes are staggering. Futurists generally want to identify such gradual changes, so that they can be monitored and timely action taken.

Ideas about the future are especially important to futurists (Cornish, 1977). Since the future does not exist, it must be invented: ideas about what may happen in the future must be generated and studied. Because ideas can be so powerful and drastically change the world, futurists are interested in the systematic development of ideas.

Futurists insist on a rational or even scientific basis for their speculations about the future (Coates & Jarratt, 1989). For the most part, they lay no claim to the ability to predict (Toffler, 1972; *The Art of Forecasting*, 1991). Instead, they suggest things that *might* happen in the future, so that people can decide what they want to make happen. This is a key differentiating factor between futurists and other individuals (astrologers, palm-readers, etc). In addition, futurists often use quite sophisticated methods in thinking about the future: trend projections, scenarios, models, simulations, computer simulations, long-range planning, cross impact analysis, environmental scanning, technological and environmental assessment, and paradigm and framework analysis (Future Health, 1988; *The Art of Forecasting*, 1991).

What Futurists Believe

A recent World Future Society publication (*Future Research Directory*, 1991) listed nearly 1200 individuals professionally involved in the study of the future. This article will be limited to a discussion of the 17 prominent and outstanding futurists (Table 1) studied by Coates and Jarratt (1989).

The views of other key futurists (not involved in Coates study) will also be presented.

Human nature being as it is, it is natural to look for consensus among futurists. Although Coates and Jarratt (1989) did indeed find consensus among the futurists they studied (Table 2), they also found disagreements (Table 3) and little unanimity in their outlook.

Futurists strongly agree that human endeavors, institutions, and systems are becoming incredibly more complex (Capra, 1975; Robertson, 1978; Ferguson, 1980; Coates and Jarratt, 1989; Myers, 1990; Toffler, 1990). The reasons given include the greater numbers of people involved, increased layers of technology and bureaucracy, and the growing interdependence of nations both economically and socially.

Greater numbers of people are becoming involved as is witnessed by world population growth. Today there are more than 5 billion people inhabiting the planet; by 2000 there will be 6 billion; and by 2025 there could be more than 10 billion (Myers, 1990). Futurists doubt the world's ability to build infrastructure fast enough to keep pace with population growth

(Ackoff, 1974; Capra, 1974; Meadows, 1974; Coates & Jarratt, 1989; Myers, 1991). Several futurists question what a world with 8-10 billion people will be like and doubt the capacity of the world to feed, house, and clothe a larger global population.

Futurists also agree on the aging of the population, particularly in Canada and the United States (*Charting Canada's Future*, 1989; Coates & Jarratt, 1989; Dychtwald & Flower, 1989; Mckie & Thompson, 1990). The older population will command more services, dollars, and attention and will affect work, education, family leisure, consumption, and intergenerational equity, among other key areas (Dychtwald & Flower, 1989).

New layers of technology and bureaucracy are also contributing to complexity (Ackoff, 1974; Robertson, 1978; Harvey, 1985; Feeney, 1986; De Bresson, 1987; Coates & Jarratt, 1989; Toffler, 1990). The pace of new developments is increasing, and the potential of several areas of technology is revolutionary. Many futurists agree on telematics, biotechnology, and materials as the most important technologies for the future.

Telematics (the convergence of telecommunications, computers, and other information technologies) is considered a worldwide revolution comparable to the industrial revolution. Advanced telematics will begin to substitute for many other activities and resources which could be highly significant for society: communications will substitute for commuting, allowing more people to live in areas they find attractive but which are not necessarily close to a work site; computers are likely to substitute for job skills

Table 2. What futurists strongly agree on^a

- human endeavors, institutions, and systems are becoming more complex
- institutional structures (ie. government) are out-of-date, bureaucratic, sluggish, have short time frames and attention spans, and lack a world view
- science and technology will dominate and be primary drivers of change
- oil will end as the dominant source of energy — transition to other energy sources will be necessary
- world economic growth will slow
- changes will occur within a framework of continuity
- avoidance of nuclear war important
- nations becoming more interdependent economically and socially
- United States will decline economically and militarily
- education requires much improvement
- information society will demand new standards of literacy and competence
- aging of the U.S. population

^aCoates, J., & Jarratt, J. (1989). *What futurists believe*. Bethesda, MD: World Future Society.

Table 3. What futurists strongly disagree about*

- ability of individuals, groups, political systems, and nations to adapt to change and to create new and reformed institutional structures.
- value and function of technology in society
- images of the future — pessimism vs optimism
- economic factors/effects of microelectronics on global work force, the stability of the international flow of money

*Coates, J., & Jarratt, J. (1989). *What futurists believe*. Bethesda, MD: World Future Society.

and erode the need for job training; artists and magicians are complementing and substituting knowledge of electronics technology for traditional craft skills; satellite-aided navigation will augment, and perhaps substitute for, maps and charts; and information technologies are substituting for individual craftsmen in the home construction industry, producing the mobile, and the manufactured home (Pierce, 1989). The new information technology, by being intrinsically more complex and requiring a great deal of time to be understood will, however, invite abuse, crime, and unconventional uses (Didsbury, 1982).

Societies, corporations, governments, communities, and individuals must learn to live with the information age with all its many advantages and disadvantages. Futurists are clear that the information society will require skills, training, and world views of all involved. Exactly what skills, training, and world views are needed, however, is not clear. In addition, where these skills will be best learned is debatable. Many futurists feel that the education system, at least in the United States, is rapidly declining and needs much improvement (Coates & Jarratt, 1989).

Biotechnology will have great impacts, particularly on agriculture and health (Marx, 1989; Coates & Jarratt, 1989; Naisbitt & Aburdene, 1990). Research and development in the fast-changing field of biotechnology is leading not just to improvement in existing technology but to a whole range of applications not previously thought of.

Materials will contribute to the complexity because of their revolutionary potential in manufactured products, construction, and space development (Coates & Jarratt, 1989; Cornish, 1990). Examples of new materials and technologies already in use include lasers, high-performance plastics, advanced composites, and high-tech ceramics used for superconductors (Cornish, 1990). Nanotechnology, the ability to manipulate matter on a molecular

scale, will likely be at the forefront. With nanotechnology, it will be possible to develop tiny machines with component parts small enough to manipulate matter at the atomic level (Drexler & Peterson, 1991). Among the possibilities: highly efficient solar cells as cheap as newspaper, molecular machines to fight cancer, and mechanisms for restoring extinct species from preserved genetic material.

Futurists differ on how to manage complexity, but most feel that new management tools and training to deal with complexity are needed (Robertson, 1978; Coates & Jarratt, 1989; Toffler, 1990). They mostly agree that current institutional structures, such as government, are not the answer to managing complexity. Corporations will play a larger role, taking over governing functions and providing more services in a privatized society. Regardless, complexity will be an important factor shaping the decisions made by societies, communities, and individuals.

Futurists differ on the ability of individuals, groups, political systems, and nations to adapt to change (Toffler, 1970; Robertson, 1978; Coates & Jarratt, 1991; Barker, 1992). Coates and Jarratt (1991) found that the futurists they studied had views ranging from belief that only disaster will force societal change to faith that society can accomplish enormous structural changes. Toffler (1970) suggests that most people are grotesquely unprepared to cope with change. Naisbitt (1990) is more optimistic about the ability of individuals to deal with the changes occurring.

The futurists studied by Coates and Jarratt (1989) are uncertain of, or feel disquiet about a number of issues. World population growth has already been addressed. They also feel uneasy about military, defense, and disarmament. Their primary concern is that the United States cannot support its military infrastructure at present levels for much longer, and that a cutback in military spending will hit hard at the United States and possibly the global

economy. Little attention has been paid to long-term military build-up, the potential impact of emerging world trade in arms, the growing military interest in space, and the spillover of unwanted arms to supply wars in less developed countries.

Africa is also a concern and its future is generally believed to be dismal (Coates & Jarratt, 1989). Africa is unstable economically and politically and the problem with AIDS is alarming. The futurists wonder whether anyone else in the world will care, or act, or can act to head off inevitable disaster.

Futurists are also uneasy about societal values and attitudes, in that societal values influence events in ways that are not fully understood and are unpredictable (Coates & Jarratt, 1989).

Finally, Coates and Jarratt (1989) found that the futurists, in general, have ignored issues such as foreign affairs/foreign policy, the infrastructure, the sociology of the future, women, blacks, minorities, immigrants and cultural conflicts, lifestyles, crime, nation and nation groups, unions, environment, and religion. Naisbitt (1990), however, believes that the 1990s is the decade of women in leadership and that religion is undergoing a revival. Toffler (1980, 1990) addresses most of these issues in his discussion of the future.

Understanding Change and the Future

Societies, communities, and individuals face far greater change than anything known in the past — and according to futurists, tomorrow will bring far greater changes. Change will come, whether positively pursued or not, whether arriving by design, or by default. The biggest challenge for many communities and individuals will be facing the prospect of change.

Harper (1989) suggests the following for living in a rapidly changing world: 1) expect change, 2) understand change, 3) change oneself, and 4) change society.

Life is a continuous process of adapting to change. All professionals, including home economists, have to expect, live with, and make the most of change. They need to understand its directions and to learn to live with a degree of ambiguity and uncertainty.

Understanding of the major trends and dimensions of change is also need-

ed. The more home economists understand these trends and the mechanisms by which they take place, the easier it will be to live in and cope with a changing world. Particularly important is understanding how change in one unit or dimension is connected to changes in other elements of a larger system. Home economists may begin to understand change and futurism by:

- reading about, paying attention to, and reflecting on change and futurism; asking "what if" questions.
- sharpening one's trend perception skills (Celente, 1990; Popcorn, 1991). Reading articles (magazines and newspapers) about food (new products, trendy restaurants, best-selling cookbooks); new product introductions, successful or not; transformations in the family structure, shifts in the workplace, the environment, the economy, and the overall cultural mood.
- listening (Myers, 1990) to each other and oneself. Myers suggests that individuals should seek for an enhanced awareness, attained through higher levels of sensitivity to oneself, to each other, and to the surrounding world.

Professionals must also be able to adapt to change. Self-change may mean (Robertson, 1978; Harper, 1989; Kaufman, 1990):

- exploring new ideas
- developing new skills
- becoming more self-reliant
- developing autonomy
- putting aside cynicism and fatalism
- balancing one's life
- becoming familiar with new technologies.

Finally, Harper (1989) suggests that individuals can and must work to change society. Home economists, through the nature of their profession, already invest time and energy working to bring about a better world for others. Their special role of assisting people in enhancing their daily lives will become more important as soci-

eties and communities increase in complexity. Theobald (1987) suggests that as the familiar vanishes, so does the effectiveness of the ways decisions are made by individuals, families, groups, and communities. Thus, individuals will continue to need help, if not more, in managing changing relationships, resource management, consumerism, clothing and textiles, housing, and foods and nutrition. The challenge for home economists will be to be realistic and creative at the same time.

Summary

The challenges that the future will present to the home economist will be many. Society is undergoing a transformation like nothing seen before. Technological, scientific, economic, environmental, climatic, social, political, institutional, and personal pressures are poised to trigger change in all spheres of life. The impact of these changes will be both favorable and unfavorable.

There is no doubt that the future is scary. Often people would rather not think about it. However, Robertson (1983) stresses that individuals must think about the future for themselves and not leave it to the experts. And finally, Myer (1991) offers these thoughts:

We all have an interest in the future. That is where we plan to spend the rest of our lives. Yet we all give too little thought to it. We even suspect the future is unknowable even while we have a gut feeling that our future world will be a world of change, change of many sorts, often surprising change, change to affect all our lives. (p.1) □

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Vitamin E and Aging

Roberto Pellegrino



Abstract

The Free Radical theory of Aging proposed by Denham Harman in 1968 suggests an increased role in the use of Vitamin E, an antioxidant, in the retardation of damage done by the increases in free radical production as the body ages. Studies on the effect of Vitamin E in conditions of the aged such as atherosclerosis, diabetes, and reduced immune function indicate a marked reduction in free radical damage. While no increase in maximum lifespan was observed in any of the studies, a definite trend in the increase of average lifespan exists suggesting the effects of Vitamin E on free radical damage occurs in the first half of life. Much progress has been made in this area; however, conclusive proof has not yet been provided and as a result, further research must occur.

Résumé

La théorie des radicaux libres et le vieillissement (*Free Radical Theory of Aging*), proposée par Denham Harman en 1968, suggère d'accroître l'utilisation de la vitamine E (un antioxydant) pour retarder les dommages causés par la production accrue de radicaux libres au fur et à mesure que le corps vieillit. Les études sur les effets de la vitamine E sur certaines manifestations associées au vieillissement, telles que l'athérosclérose, le diabète, et une fonction immunitaire réduite, indiquent un ralentissement marqué des dommages causés par la production de radicaux libres. Ces études n'ont observé aucun changement au niveau de la durée maximale de la vie; par contre, on a remarqué une nette tendance à la hausse de la durée moyenne de la vie, ce qui pourrait indiquer que c'est pendant la première moitié de la vie que la vitamine E produit un effet de ralentissement des dommages causés par les radicaux libres. Beaucoup de progrès ont été faits dans ce domaine; cependant, faute de preuve concluante, les travaux de recherche doivent continuer.

Man has ever been trying to discern the secret of the aging process in order to inhibit or reverse it, and thus fulfill the ages-long dream of immortality. A number of theories are being suggested for the process of aging ranging from genetic determinants to the effects of free radical damage in the body. Much research has been done to support this latter theory, the free-radical theory of aging. This review of the literature will cover the effects of free-radicals and their

inhibitors on lifespan, the effects of free-radicals on 'age-related' diseases such as cancer and atherosclerosis, and finally, the effects of free-radicals on the immune system resulting in poor response with increasing age. Vitamin E (alpha-tocopherol) is one antioxidant which has received large amounts of attention in terms of its effects with regard to aging. Evidence will show why this nutrient is so essential in the body for quenching free-radical chain reactions and therefore, increasing lifespan.

A number of studies have conclusively shown a strong correlation between aging and decreases in cellular antioxidant, especially vitamin E.

De and Dorad (1991) studied the effects of aging on different cellular antioxidants in the rat. Male rats fed nutritionally adequate rat chow ad libitum were killed at 3, 12, and 24 months. Serum and liver samples were then analysed for antioxidant status. The authors found a significant decrease in the levels of vitamin E and vitamin C at both twelve and twenty-four months. Thus, the conclusion reached was that this decrease in antioxidant status may lead to greater damage in the aged rat due to greater free-radical chain reactions occurring.

Sawada and Carlson (1987) support the above findings. They studied the superoxide radical (SOR) production during the lifetime of the rat and measured lipid peroxide levels to see if a comparable change exists. Rats were again fed nutritionally adequate rat chow ad libitum and tissue samples were collected at 1.5, 3.5, 6, 12, 19, 20, 30, 41, 52, 65, 78, 95, and 105 weeks of age. A separate group of 25 male rats were set aside (as controls) to measure lifespan in this study (i.e. their age at time of death was recorded). The authors found vitamin E levels increase in young rats, remained level through their lifespan, and only decreased insignificantly in old age. However, it was noted that SOR production in brain and heart mitochondria increases significantly with age. As well, it was observed that lipid peroxides also increase with age; a significant observation as lipid peroxides have been implicated to cause cross-linking of proteins, nucleic acids, and lipids. This cross-linking has been suggested as a mechanism for membrane rigidification in the elderly. The authors then suggest that aging due to

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free radical damage is not the result of a decrease in vitamin E status (as no decrease was observed), but rather to an increase in superoxide production. If this is indeed the case, perhaps antioxidant supplementation in the elderly is warranted to offset increased SOR production. The authors do note that while no vitamin E decrease occurred, only plasma levels were measured and tissue levels were not.

A third study by Wartanowicz, Parzenko-Kresowska, Kowalska, and Okolska (1984) supports the above data, but this study occurs in humans. The purpose of this study was to determine whether a relationship exists between the state of saturation of the organism with vitamin E and vitamin C and with serum levels of peroxides in the elderly. One hundred healthy subjects, mainly women, between 60-100 years old were grouped into three groups: group one was supplemented with vitamin E capsules, each containing 100 mg, twice daily. Group two was supplemented with vitamin C, in a 200 mg dose, again twice daily and group three were given both supplements in the dosages above. A control group of twenty women were not given any supplements. Serum vitamin levels were determined twice and peroxide levels three times: at the beginning (baseline) of the study, after four months, and after one year. The researchers found an inversely proportional relationship between vitamin E levels and lipid peroxide concentrations. Results showed that vitamin E supplementation decreases peroxide levels 14%, vitamin C decreases peroxide 8%, and supplementation of both decreases levels 20% after four months. After one year, a 13% decrease in peroxide levels were noted with vitamin C supplementation, while a 26% decrease resulted in both the other groups (i.e. the vitamin E and vitamin E/vitamin C supplemented groups). These studies conclusively show that vitamin E is intricately linked to free-radical theory of aging.

Denham Harman (1968) proposed the theory that free-radical damage done to cells and organelles as a result of enzyme inactivation and membrane oxidation is the cause for aging. Harman suggested that by increasing free-radical inhibitors in the body, damage resulting from superoxide chain reactions would be reduced, and thus, result in an increase in cellular lifespan.

To test his theory, Harman studied six antioxidative chemicals added to a normal diet given to LAF mice. Two chemicals were found to increase mean lifespan of the mice, while no effect was observed on maximum lifespan. However, these chemicals were not normally biologically available in food and thus, the practicality of this study was questioned. However, further research, especially with the naturally occurring antioxidant vitamin E, supported Harman's free-radical theory of aging.

One such study on the extension of lifespan as a direct result of vitamin E supplementation supports this theory. Enesco and Verdone-Smith (1980) found that alpha-tocopherol supplementation in the experimental media used to support a rotifer (*philodina*) population resulted in significant increase in average lifespan of the rotifer population. Again, maximum lifespan was not affected suggesting that the antioxidant effect of vitamin E occurs maximally in a younger organism reducing free-radical damage and therefore resulting in a lower mortality rate in this younger group. However, mortality rate in the aged population does not change suggesting that maximum lifespan may be genetically determined.

According to the free-radical theory of aging, this increase in lifespan is due to the quenching of free-radicals in the body preventing any potential damaging effects. Other studies have attempted to show that this prevention of free-radical damage plays a role in age-related diseases such as atherosclerosis and diabetes (non-insulin dependant).

For example, Boissoneault, Hennig, Wang, and Wood (1990) studied the effect of chronic exposure of fatty acid hyperperoxides on endothelial barrier function and any potential protecting effects of vitamin E supplementation. It is proposed that endothelial barrier function is reduced and damage is caused by free-radical elements in the blood. This damage results in atherosclerotic plaque and scar tissue build-up resulting in greater incidence of atherosclerosis. Arterial cells were isolated and tested for endothelial barrier function (EBF) by movement into the cell by albumin. Cells were passed 10 generations before experimental initiation and then were exposed to oxidized fatty acids for the next 40 passages. At passages 10 (baseline), 15, 30,

and 50, EBF was measured. Results indicated an increase in trans-endothelial movement of albumin when cells were exposed to oxidized fatty acids (OFA) (i.e. severe damage resulted). This increasing movement correlated strongly with an increase in endothelial cell age. It was also noted that addition of vitamin E to the media protected against OFA mediated elevation in albumin. The authors suggested three specific mechanisms for vitamin E's protective effects (all supporting the free-radical theory of aging): 1) vitamin E's free-radical scavenging ability, 2) detoxification of exogenously derived oxidized lipids, and 3) prevention of oxidative conversion of polyunsaturated fatty acid membrane constituents (membrane stabilization).

Diabetes is also a condition which is prevalent among the elderly and which may have some relation to free-radical theory. Urano, Hoshihashizume, Tochigi, Mabsuo, Shirake, and Ito (1991) studied the susceptibility of erythrocyte lipids from aged diabetics to superoxide and the inhibitory effect of vitamin E on lipid peroxidation to determine whether superoxide stress increased membrane damage causing greater glucose sensitivity. This study showed that erythrocyte membranes from aged (70-80 year old) human diabetics were significantly more permeable to glucose than those from age-related non-diabetics indicating damage resulting from membrane oxidation due to superoxide radical reaction. However, when cell media was supplemented with vitamin E, lipid peroxidation was inhibited. That is, membrane permeability to glucose was significantly reduced.

These two studies indicate the protective effect exhibited by vitamin E from conditions resulting from the aging process such as atherosclerosis and diabetes. In addition to this, studies in the area of the immune system have been carried out to ascertain whether free-radical formation reduces immune response and in this way, contributes to the aging process.

Penn, Purkens, Kelleher, Heatley, Mascie-Taylor, and Belfield (1991) studied the effect of dietary supplementation with vitamins A, C, and E on cell mediated immune function in elderly long-term patients. The study assessed the immunological status of these patients before and after supplementation with these dietary antioxidants. Thirty patients who were in the

hospital for greater than three months were divided into two groups. One group was given a placebo while the test group was given a vitamin supplement containing 100 mg vitamin C, 8000 IU vitamin A, and 50 mg vitamin E for twenty-eight days. Nutritional and immunological status was assessed both anthropometrically as well as biochemically. The researchers found that upon completion of the one-month supplementation, absolute number of T-cells increased significantly, especially T4-cells (those most important in immune function). As well, a significant improvement in lymphocyte response was noted when challenged with mitogen PHA. Conclusions indicated that dietary antioxidant status plays a significant role in proper immune function.

While the authors of the previous study do not propose a mechanism of action for the antioxidants in immune function, some research has been done in this area. Meydani, Meydani, Verdon, Shapiro, Blumberg, and Hayes (1986) wanted to determine the effects of dietary supplementation of vitamin E on in-vivo and in-vitro cell-mediated immune response and splenocyte prostaglandin E2 (PGE2) synthesis. The authors suggested that an increased PGE2 production has an inhibitory effect on the response of human lymphocytes to mitogens. As prostaglandin synthesis increases with age and the vitamin is known to inhibit prostaglandin synthesis, the researchers wished to test the effect of vitamin E in relation to immune response. Three and twenty-four month old rats were fed a semipurified

diet containing 30 ppm alpha-tocopherol acetate. After six weeks, a delayed hypersensitivity skin test (DHST) was done and swelling was measured. As well, ex-vivo synthesis of PGE2 was measured in incubated spleen homogenates. The researchers found that twenty-four month old rats had greater amounts of PGE2 than the three month old rats, but significantly less than controls. As well, significantly less swelling was noted on the ears of the twenty-four month old rats due to DHST than the three month rats. Therefore, vitamin E supplementation improved immune response indirectly by inhibiting prostaglandin synthesis, known to interfere with immune response.

As a decrease in immune function in the elderly leads to greater incidence of infection, tumors, and increased post-illness recovery time, mechanisms for why the immune system degenerates as a result of aging is slowly being elucidated. Vitamin E, it seems, plays an essential role in the elderly as an immuno-stimulatory agent as the two previous studies indicate.

Whether by stimulating the immune system in the elderly, preventing endothelial deposition of atherosclerotic plaque, or by scavenging free-radicals preventing them from damaging body tissue, vitamin E plays an important role in the maintenance of tissue function and wholeness and thus, in the prevention of the aging process. The free-radical theory of aging has not yet conclusively been established, but until then further research on the role of vitamin E and

its place as an anti-aging agent is required. Perhaps in a few years, researchers will discover that vitamin E is truly the "fountain of youth". □

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Adaptation of a Family Consumer Decision Model to the Initiation of the Divorce Process

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Abstract

A review of the published literature of the 1980s showed the need to further investigate the initiation of the divorce decision process itself, including who the persons involved are and when they interact. This paper describes the adaptation of a consumer decision model developed by McGregor, Crown, Badir, and McDonald (1987) to the initiation of the divorce decision process. Using that model, more variables than other theories of divorce were able to be incorporated. A list of variables appropriate to the modified model were selected and testable propositions were developed. Strengths and weaknesses of using the proposed model are discussed. Its usefulness is reflected in both its adaptability and its potential for a multivariate perspective.

Résumé

Une étude de toutes les publications des années 80 démontre qu'il existe un besoin d'étudier davantage l'amorce du processus même de la prise de décision de divorce, y compris les personnes en jeu et leurs moments d'interaction. Ce document décrit comment McGregor, Crown, Badir et McDonald ont adapté, en 1987, un modèle de prise de décision du consommateur à l'amorce du processus de prise de décision de divorce. À l'aide de ce modèle de ce modèle, il a été possible d'intégrer un plus large éventail de variables que d'autres théories de divorce. On a sélectionné une liste de variables appropriées à ce modèle modifié et élaboré des propositions vérifiables. Ce document souligne les forces et les faiblesses constatées lors de l'utilisation de ce modèle et démontre que son utilité réside à la fois dans sa grande capacité d'adaptation et dans la possibilité de l'utiliser dans une perspective multivariée.

There is a mushrooming interest in the increasing number of divorces, as evidenced by an expanding number of articles concerning divorce and divorce counselling, a *Journal of Divorce*, and "self-help" books. Unfortunately the focus of such literature is not generally on the decision to divorce. According to Kitson and Raschke (1981) "much of what we know about divorce has been a by-product of research on other topics such as mental health and life satisfaction..., race relations..., economic and occupational surveys..., and population control" (p.6). As a result of findings based on demographic research,

we know more about who divorces than why they divorce (Kitson & Raschke, 1981).

The purpose of this paper is to adapt a consumer decision model developed by McGregor, Crown, Badir and MacDonald (1987) to the divorce initiation process. The three major components of the McGregor et al. model, namely, the external environment, the internal environment (family system), and the inner core (see Fig. 1) were used. To explain the adapted model, first a list of the variables is presented, with the changes from the McGregor et al. model noted. Second, for each of the three major components of the model, a review of the literature is presented. Variables used to develop propositions for each of the model's components are presented, followed by the propositions.

Initiation of the decision to divorce is generally viewed as a complex process in which researchers must account for different stages (Booth & White,

1980; Raschke, 1987). The initiation of the divorce process may lead to separation, followed by divorce or reconciliation. Because of the various possible stages in which individuals or couples may be studied, the resulting research methods and data collection often make comparisons across studies difficult. The authors chose to focus on the initiation of the process, when one or both partners start deciding that divorce is a serious and viable alternative course of action. A model developed for consumer decision making (McGregor et al., 1987) has been applied to the decision to initiate divorce. Expected strengths and weaknesses of using the adapted model are discussed and comments are given possible use of the model in research.

Theoretical Rationale

The literature contains many large-scale studies that have focussed on the demographic characteristics of divor-

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ing individuals such as age, education level, income, and length of marriage (Ahrons, 1983; Booth & White, 1980; Kalb, 1983; Kelly, 1986; Kitson & Raschke, 1981). While supplying valuable information on the probabilities of divorce for groups of individuals sharing these particular characteristics, these studies generally do not provide data on the interpersonal reasons for divorce (Cleek & Pearson, 1985). Kalb (1983) stated that what remains to be discussed are the factors governing the decision to terminate the marital relationships.

Because divorce has been studied from various perspectives, there have been contradictory explanations for its occurrence (Kitson & Raschke, 1981). Currently the most common microexplanation of divorce has been the use of exchange theory (Albrecht & Kunz, 1980; Kalb, 1983; Levinger, 1966, 1976). Exchange theory provides a framework in which the formation of a dyad (i.e. marital couple) is explained in terms of reward-cost outcomes. While exchange theory is commonly used as a theoretical explanation, there have been few empirical tests of the utility of the model (Kitson & Raschke, 1981). When used, such efforts have focussed more on structural variables such as income, age, presence or absence of children, and employment of the wife (Albrecht & Kunz, 1980; Levinger, 1976) than on intrapsychic or individual factors associated with divorce. The exchange perspective works well to identify the internal variables that might influence an individual's decision to divorce in relation to perception of reward, costs, and expectations; however, it does not explain how these internal variables may be affected by external variables, such as political or economic conditions in society. Nor does it explain possible interaction among variables.

A more integrated approach to divorce is needed, one which assumes that such a decision "is a complex, dynamic process rather than a single individual act" (McGregor et al., 1987, p. 82). An ecosystem model that incorporates both external and internal variables over time can be useful in overcoming shortcomings of other theoretical perspectives. The intricacies of the variations in interaction that occurs among family members at different stages of the divorce process and the effect of the immediate environment need to be addressed. Although an ecosystem perspective has been used

to study family decision-making (Hill & Scanzoni, 1982; Scanzoni & Szinovacz, 1980), it has not been applied to divorce in particular. The purpose of this paper is to adapt a consumer decision model for the initiation of the divorce decision process. A model developed by McGregor et al. (1987) was chosen because it uses an ecosystem perspective, allowing for a complex decision-making process over time involving various members of the divorcing family. Additional references will be cited in the following discussion of our adaptation of the model.

Methods

A review of the divorce literature in the decade of the 1980s was conducted. A few, often cited, relevant articles from earlier decades were also included. Articles chosen were empirical in nature. The variables used in the reviewed studies were then categorized according to the McGregor et al. (1987) model. Because not all the variables in the consumer decision model were perceived to be relevant, the model needed to be adapted to the initiation of divorce decision process. Finally, during the course of the review of the divorce literature, some propositions related to the initiation of divorce were derived.

The purpose of this exercise was to examine how well these propositions could then be incorporated into the McGregor et al. decision-making model. During this process additional theoretical propositions were also developed, based on research findings presented in the literature and concepts derived from the model. Note that all studies except Ambert (1979), Pain (1988) and Palmer (1971) were conducted with subjects who resided in the United States. Further research on Canadian samples is certainly warranted.

Adaptation of the Model to the Initiation of the Divorce Process

McGregor et al. (1987) describe their model as follows:

Succinctly, the domain and scope of this family model of the consumer decision process is a theoretical effort concerned with explaining the phenomenon of a family... as it goes through various stages in making a decision.... The [conceptual] framework comprises three major components:

the external environment, the internal environment (family system) and the inner core, which in turn comprises the decision process, family member involvement at each stage of the process, and the product-related variables. The model is schematically presented in a nested-cup fashion so as to conceptualize the ecosystems approach of studying the family (Bronfenbrenner, 1979; Deacon & Firebaugh 1981; Hill, 1984; Kieren, Vaines, & Badir, 1984). (p.83)

The original model was modified in the following ways:

- (1) The market forces variable in the external environment has been deleted, since it was considered to be strictly consumer related.
- (2) The internal environment segment was expanded to consider factors specific to divorce. Additionally, consumer variables such as attitude toward shopping were deleted.
- (3) The inner core was revised.

Variables of the Adapted Model

The variables found in the divorce research literature have been summarized in Table 1. These are grouped into the following areas: a) external variables, b) internal variables, c) decision process, d) divorce related, and e) family member involvement. The group labels were taken from the McGregor et al. (1987) consumer decision model. The variables included in each group come from the divorce research and are applicable to the initiation of the divorce process. If a variable from the divorce research was not in the original consumer model, it was added to the appropriate group. If a variable appeared in the original consumer model and did not appear to be relevant to divorce, it was omitted. The resulting variable list, although stimulated by the original consumer model, is thus adapted to divorce.

The External Environment

Variables. Factors in the cultural environment, outside the direct influence of any married couple, are considered external. External variables directly or indirectly influence core variables. Examples include cultural expectations to stay married and changing political climates. Couples are subject to many external pressures from the environment to remain married. Examples of such pressures

Table 1. Inventory of variables

<i>External</i>	<i>Decision Process (whole section)*</i>
cultural expectations	problem recognition (dissatisfaction/ individual cognition)
divorce laws*	alternatives evaluated
economic system	thinking about divorce*
political system	discussion with spouse and others*
reference groups	– metacognition
geographic location*	consulting attorneys or counsellors*
	– information search
<i>Internal</i>	separation*
attitude	filing for divorce*
authority	actual divorce*
belief	post-divorce*
demographics	– redefinition
– age*	
– educational level*	<i>Divorce Related*</i>
– gender*	amount of information
– marital duration*	complexity of alternatives
– premarital factors*	importance of decision
family life cycle	irrevocability of action*
family life style	length of commitment
goals	perceived similarity between alternatives
love	perceived risk
marital quality*	uncertainty
motives	consequences of decision*
needs	
norms	<i>Family Member Involvement</i>
past experience	role specialization
patterns of decision making	– participation/involvement
patterns of interaction	– autonomic/syncretic
personal factors	– husband/wife dominance
– attitudes toward divorce**	– democratic/egalitarian/traditional
– confidence in decision making	influence
– tolerance of perceived problems**	– dominance
– perception	interaction
– propensity to search alternatives**	– amount
– sex role attitude	– cooperation
power	– conflict
resources	– conflict resolution
– comparative resources	– consensus
– financial status	
– interaction resources	
– adaptability	
– affective involvement	
– commitment*	
– connectedness	
– family congruence	
– empathy flexibility	
– group cohesiveness	
– intimacy	
roles	
role structure	
socioeconomic factors	
trust	
time	
values	

*Items added by present authors.

**Items changed by present authors.

Note: Adapted from McGregor et al. (1987:85).

include the normative costs of breaking social (cultural) and legal commitments (political) as well as the disapproval of parents and friends (reference groups) (Levinger, 1976; Thompson & Spanier, 1983). Green and Sprorakowski (1983) have found that external pressures to remain married positively influence the strength

of the relationship between marital quality and marital stability, i.e., decision not to initiate divorce. See proposition 1.

Ambert (1979) and Laner (1978) are in agreement that numerous cultural, societal, and economic changes have led to the decision to initiate divorce. Some examples of these are political,

such as the general climate of liberalism and the relaxation of divorce and emancipation of women (Ambert, 1979). Geographic location is also related to the social climate with urban areas having fewer divorce prohibitions than rural ones (Raschke, 1987). See propositions 2 and 3. The current economic situation of the country or community, for example, unemployment levels and employment rates, can also be influential factors.

Propositions. Cultural expectations regarding divorce, a society's divorce laws, and cultural notions of equality between sexes all influence the likelihood of initiation of the divorce decision process. Three propositions have been developed and tested by researchers which show these relationships. These propositions are:

P1 — People whose reference groups disapprove of divorce are less likely to initiate the divorce decision process (Levinger, 1976; Raschke, 1987; Thompson & Spanier, 1983).

P2 — People who live in societies that have liberal divorce laws are more likely than others to initiate the divorce decision process (Ambert, 1979; Laner, 1978).

P3 — Women who live in societies where laws favor equality between the sexes are more likely than others to initiate the divorce decision process (Ambert, 1979).

The Internal Environment

Variables. Much of the divorce research has concentrated on variables classified here as internal. These variables depict the family system operating within the external environment. Income, educational level, employment status, age at marriage, present age, premarital pregnancy, marital duration, homogamy of religious beliefs, presence and age of children, and marital satisfaction have all been considered as internal variables associated with the divorce initiation process.

First, income security as a divorce predictor has been studied. It has been shown that men with low incomes are more likely to divorce than women with low incomes (Kelly, 1986). A woman with high income is more likely to terminate the relationship as she can more easily support herself (Kalb, 1983; Kelly, 1986). See proposition 4.

A confounding relationship exists between education and income. Kalb

(1983) observed that education correlated highly with occupational status and financial security. An individual with higher education is more likely to earn a higher income than someone with less education. Kalb stated that gender differences existed in the likelihood of divorce initiation. Women with high education level were more likely to have a more positive conception of the alternative to divorce, whereas for men the reverse was true. A husband's education was positively related to his income, and therefore to the couple's living standard, making it attractive for the wife to remain married (Levinger, 1976). Other researchers have reported a curvilinear relationship in which initiation of divorce is low for lowest and highest education levels, but higher divorce initiation rates occur for those with only elementary or high school education (Laner, 1978). Kelly (1986) also found that men and women who failed to complete high school had the highest divorce initiation rate. See proposition 5. It has also been suggested that similarity in educational background may be associated with marital durability (Levinger, 1976).

Employment status is another internal factor. For both men and women, those who are employed full-time are significantly more likely to be considering divorce than those without full-time employment (Booth & White, 1980). Employed women are more likely than employed men to be thinking about divorce (Booth & White, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981). See proposition 6.

A younger age at first marriage has been found to be associated with a greater incidence of considering divorce (Booth & White, 1980; Kitson & Raschke; Laner, 1978; Palmer, 1971). Some researchers have found this to be true only for women (Huber & Spitze, 1980), while others have claimed that a young marital age is less likely to lead to divorce (Kalb, 1983). Present age (age at time of marriage be it a first marriage or a remarriage) has also been found to influence the decision to divorce. The younger a spouse is, the more positive the conception of alternative and the greater the probability that divorce will occur (Kalb, 1983). Premarital pregnancy is another factor that also increased the likelihood that consideration of divorce will occur (Kelly, 1986; Kitson & Raschke, 1981; Palmer, 1971). See propositions 7-9.

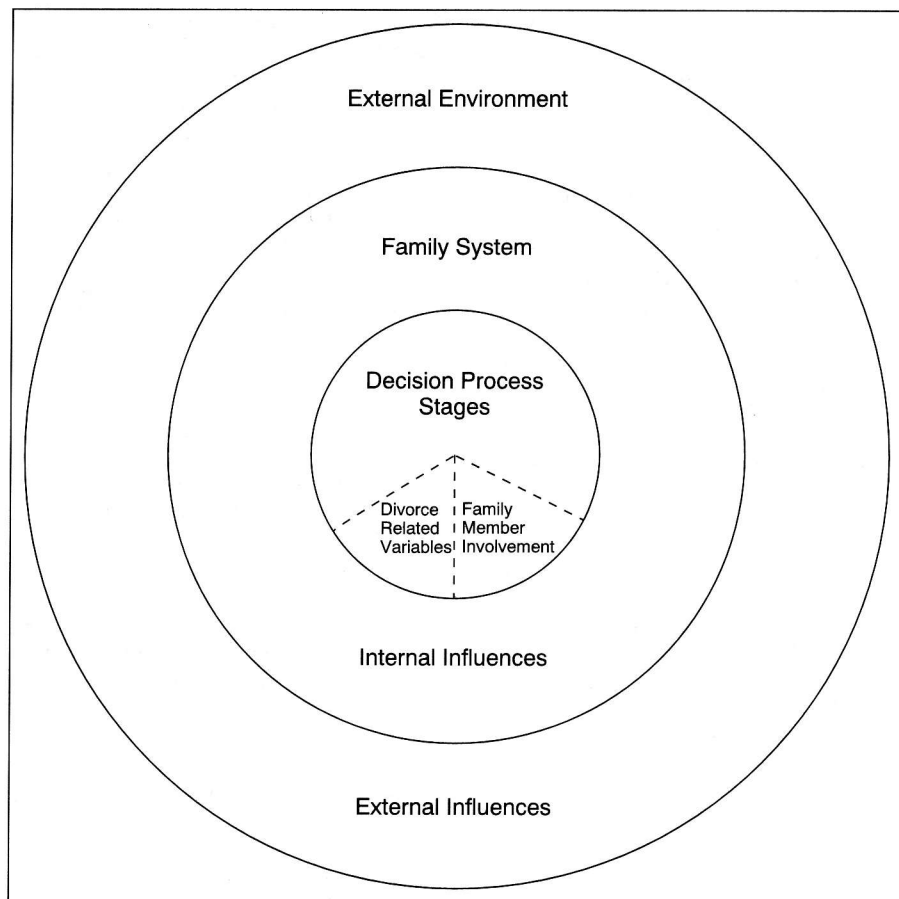


Figure 1. Model of initiation to divorce decision process. (Adapted by permission from McGregor et al., 1987: 83-84.)

There is general consensus that divorce initiation is less frequent among those married a longer period of time (Booth & White, 1980; Huber & Spitze, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981). It has been found that the frequency of considering divorce is consistently high for the first ten years of marriage and then tapers off and remains at a fairly stable level (Booth & White, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981). Religious similarity has also been linked to marital durability (Levinger, 1976), while religious differences seem to increase the likelihood of divorce initiation (Huber & Spitze, 1980; Kunz & Albrecht, 1977). It has been found that the intensity of religious beliefs seems to be a better predictor than the denomination (Booth & White, 1980). See propositions 10 and 11.

The presence and age of children in the marriage also has bearing on the spouses' decision-making process. Studies have found that the stresses and demands of very young children may increase the frequency with

which parents consider divorce (Booth & White, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981). Contradictory studies have claimed that the presence of children, especially young ones, contributed to a negative conception of the alternatives and lowered the probability of divorce (Kalb, 1983). In view of these results, spouses may think about divorce more when children have started school and singlehood becomes a more attractive alternative (Huber & Spitze, 1980). See proposition 12.

Marital satisfaction (reported happiness or satisfaction with marriage/relationship) is a variable that needs to be scrutinized further in relation to the initiation of divorce. There are also definitional problems with marital satisfaction for which one would have to account. Findings by Booth and White (1980) showed that respondents with unhappy marriages were more apt to consider divorce than those with happy marriages. The study of marital satisfaction does not explain why couples in happy marriages are willing to

consider leaving the marriage, which suggests that there are other more powerful factors than marital satisfaction that may have been operating (Booth & White, 1980). See proposition 13.

Numerous other internal variables have been postulated but not as consistently researched. Some of these include the perception of degree of one's physical attractiveness, feelings and attitudes about divorce, the divorce history of the couple, the nature and degree of premarital relationships, risk-taking behavior, and the presence or absence of a third party (Kalb, 1983). Ponzetti and Cate (1988) identified measures of love and trust as significant factors in dissatisfaction leading to the initiation of the divorce decision process. There are also studies that provide the reasons given by couples for the break-up. Examples of these are emotional, financial, sexual, alcohol and drug-related problems, as well as infidelity and physical and mental abuse (Albrecht & Kunz, 1980; Ambert, 1979; Cleek & Pearson, 1985; Kelly, 1986; Kitson & Raschke, 1981; Thurnher, Fenn, Melichar & Chiriboga, 1983). Propositions could be developed which apply to these variables.

Propositions. Independent variables included are income security, education, employment status, age at marriage, premarital pregnancy, length of marriage, similarities and differences of religious beliefs, age and presence of children, and marital satisfaction.

P4 — Women with high incomes and men with low incomes are more likely to initiate the divorce decision process (Kalb, 1983; Kelly, 1986).

P5 — The relationship between education and initiation of the divorce process is expected to be curvilinear, that is, at low and high levels of education the likelihood of the initiation of the divorce decision process is higher than at medium levels of education (Laner, 1978).

P6 — Employed men and women are more likely to be considering divorce than unemployed or part-time employees (Booth & White, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981).

P7 — The younger the age at marriage, the more likely the initiation of the divorce decision process (Booth & White, 1980; Kelly, 1986; Kitson & Raschke, 1981; Laner, 1978; Palmer, 1971).

P8 — The younger the spouses at the time of divorce consideration, the more likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (Kalb, 1983).

P9 — If the woman was premaritally pregnant, the more likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (Kelly, 1986; Kitson & Raschke, 1981; Palmer, 1971).

P10 — The longer the couple has been married, the less likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (Booth & White, 1980; Huber & Spitze, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981).

P11 — The greater the religious differences between the husband and wife, the more likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (Huber & Spitze, 1980; Kunz & Albrecht, 1977; Levinger, 1976).

P12 — The younger the children in the family, the more likely that the divorce decision process will be initiated (Booth & White, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981).

P13 — The less the marital satisfaction, the more likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (Booth & White, 1980).

The Inner Core

McGregor et al. (1987) developed an inner core of consumer processes composed of the family decision process, family member involvement, and other product-related variables. It is in the inner core where most changes and adaptations occur for the current model. For example, "product-related" variables become "divorce-related" variables. All three of these core areas are discussed.

Several authors have discussed the divorce decision process, stipulating phases, stages, or stations of divorce (Ahrons, 1983; Booth & Johnson, 1983; Kelly, 1986; Lyon, Silverman, Howe, Bishop & Armstrong, 1985; Salts, 1979; Wiseman, 1975). Authors place different emphasis on specific events and disagree on the beginning and ending points in the divorce process. Most researchers characterize the divorce process by much stress, turmoil, and grievance. As a result, they have focussed on what is occurring during the various stages (grievance and growth) and how individuals cope with the decision to divorce but not specifically on how the decision itself was made.

A critical aspect of the initiation of the divorce decision process that has

been largely overlooked in research studies is each partner's role in the decision to terminate the marriage. Recent research evidence has confirmed that a mutually shared decision to separate or divorce is uncommon. More often one partner wants to terminate the relationship more than the other (Kelly, 1986). Additional corroboration is found in the research on break-ups before marriage, in which a mutual decision to terminate the premarital relationship occurred in only a very small percentage of the couples interviewed (Hill, Rubin & Peplau, 1976). In both marital and premarital break ups, initiators (the one who makes the first move in ending the relationship but not necessarily the person who files or begins the legal process for a divorce) were found to be more frequently women (Hill et al., 1976; Kelly, 1986). See propositions 14 and 15.

Because a greater number of changes within the inner core of the McGregor et al. (1987) model have been made, four additional propositions were derived for which, to our knowledge, no empirical tests have been conducted. These four propositions (see propositions 16-19) relate to the likelihood that the divorce decision process will be initiated. The authors have suggested the person divorced more times previously is more likely to initiate the divorce process. The authors also have suggested greater likelihood of divorce initiation among those with more role specialization, more child pressure, and less effective communication.

The Inner Core: Decision Process

Variables. The seven consumer decision process stages of McGregor et al.'s (1980) model have been replaced with eight divorce decision process stages. These stages are a combination of Booth and White's (1980) work on divorce, Kelly's (1986) ideas on the divorce decision process, and Ahrons' (1983) research on the transitions of divorcing families. The stages identified are as follows: 1) recognizing a problem, 2) evaluating alternative courses of action, 3) thinking about divorce, 4) discussing divorce with spouse and others, 5) consulting attorneys or counsellors, 6) separating, 7) filing for divorce, and 8) obtaining an actual divorce. Propositions developed refer to initiation of the process, which may involve stages 1-5. Stages 6-8 were not included, nor was "post

divorce" included as a stage. Booth and White (1980) suggested that divorce process stages may not necessarily be ordered and that some couples may miss one or more of these steps, while others may move back and forth. These shifts in stages are recognized as an inherent component of this model and serve to explain the dynamic, ongoing nature of the family decision process. It should also be recognized that although the divorce decision process has been initiated, there may (at any time) be a reconciliation. Researchers have reported that 20% (Pain, 1988) to 25% (Maneker & Rankin, 1987) of all couples who file for divorce discontinue the process before the final decree is obtained.

Propositions. Propositions related to the inner core divorce initiation process are as follows:

P14 — Women are more likely than men to initiate the divorce decision process (Hill, Rubin & Peplau, 1976; Kelly, 1986).

P15 — The spouse who first recognizes there is a problem in the relationship is the one more likely to initiate the divorce decision process (Kelly, 1986).

P16 — The spouse who has been divorced the most times before the current marriage will be the more likely to initiate the divorce process (theoretically derived).

The Inner Core: Family Member Involvement

Variables. Divorce decision-making entails varying involvement of the family members during the process. Family member involvement mentioned in the McGregor et al. (1987) model is useful in that it refers to the combination of role specialization (who participated in the decision and the extent of each person's participation at each stage), the influence each individual has on the decision, and the interaction which takes place during the process of deciding. This conceptualization enables researchers to account for the dynamic, complex process involved during the decision to divorce, be it one person's decision or a mutual one for both parties. It also takes into consideration that there may be other family members who are involved at any stage and that divorce initiation may be affected by events in both the external environment and the internal family environment.

Propositions. Propositions related to the inner core of the divorce initiation process do not appear in the literature. The authors derived some propositions theoretically as follows:

P17 — The greater the role specialization in the marriage (and the less interchangeability of roles) the more likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (theoretically derived).

P18 — The greater the influence by children to encourage the divorce the more likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (theoretically derived).

P19 — The less effective the communication between spouses, the more likely the divorce decision process will be initiated (theoretically derived).

The Inner Core: Divorce-related Variables

Variables. The third part of the core are divorce-related variables, including factors associated with alternatives available to couples or individuals in the decision either to stay married or to divorce. Unlike the consumer model where the product variables distinguish one "product" from the other, the divorce variable in the adapted model is limited to two options, to divorce or to stay married. However, the model can also account for couples who are separated. Eventually the couple will either reconcile or terminate the relationship permanently. Because it can be argued that some couples decide to remain permanently separated, the marriage at that point should be considered terminated. The model allows for the variable time factor that comes into play with the separated couples.

Because these variables might be more appropriately considered process variables, it has been proposed that interaction between divorce-related variables and the other core variables occurs. According to McGregor et al. (1987) these variables may influence both decision process variables and family member involvement but not vice versa. The model has been adapted so that interaction can occur. Factors such as length of commitment, perceived risk, and importance of the decision are necessary for understanding the divorce process. See propositions 20-23. Variables used by McGregor et al. (1987) such as interpurchase time, price, and unique feature of the product were deleted. Irrevocability of action and conse-

quence of the decision were added as variables because of their significance related to alternatives in the use of exchange theory for the divorce process.

Propositions. Propositions derived from the literature which relate to the initiation of the divorce process and which are specific to divorce itself are as follows:

P20 — The spouse who perceives more rewards outside the marriage when evaluating alternatives will be the more likely to initiate the divorce decision process (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959).

P21 — The spouse who has an alternative partner available will be the more likely to initiate divorce decision process (Thibaut & Kelly, 1959).

P22 — The greater the commitment to marital stability, the less the likelihood that the divorce decision process will be initiated (Edwards & Saunders, 1981).

P23 — The longer a spouse has considered divorce, the more likely the initiation of the divorce process (Kelly, 1986).

Evaluation of the Adapted Model of the Divorce Process

Proposed Strengths

One of the proposed strengths of the model is that it can account for the involvement of various family members in the initiation of divorce decision process. Most studies on divorce have focussed on the age and number of children present but not on their specific involvement. Eichler (1983) recognized that a conservative bias in the family literature manifests itself in the tendency to treat children as passive members of families. Very few studies have focussed on children themselves (Wallerstein and Kelly, 1980, is an exception), although there have been studies which assess the impact of various events such as divorce on children by asking the adults associated with them. In the majority of studies children were not seen as people who might have divergent viewpoints of what was happening within a particular family or as people who themselves could exert an influence on the nature of familial relationships (Eichler, 1983). Veevers (1979) also examined the parent-child relationship and concluded that social scientists have been so preoccupied with the impact that parents have

upon the lives of their children that they have virtually precluded consideration of the reciprocal impact that children have upon the lives of their parents. Efforts need to be made to overcome this bias, particularly during the divorce decision process, and this model may be a means of doing so.

Another expected strength of the model is that it considers the diverse impact of external variables. Social exchange theorists tend to downplay the importance of societal and cultural factors and to focus instead on dyadic and individual factors. Exchange theorists view individuals as behaving rationally, maximizing profits and minimizing costs, and neglecting other aspects of human motivation (Laner, 1978). Thibaut and Kelly (1959) attempted to correct some of these criticisms by proposing the comparison level of alternatives to explain why some persons would stay in an unhappy marriage (i.e. the alternatives to leaving the unpleasant relationship are worse than the marriage itself). Although these authors account for more than the simple exchange of rewards and costs, the theory remains too narrow. It is inadequate to explain how political and economic factors might interact with internal variables in determining what the alternatives are or how they are perceived. The model proposed by McGregor et al. (1987) can easily account for changes in societal attitudes that other models do not.

The model is also useful in accounting for the gender differences in what Bernard (1973) called "his" and "her" marriages. It is crucial to stress the duality of the marital relationship, a distinction that has been recognized but not emphasized (Edwards & Saunders, 1981). The two internal variables of gender and perception interact with each other in the initiation of decision to divorce. Other studies have found that the manner in which men and women reported the decision to separate differs. Women were apt to say that the decision to divorce was a mutual one, whereas men more often indicated that their wives had sought the divorce (Kelly, 1986).

Another advantage of using this model is the ease in which new variables can be incorporated into it. One such example is the variable of commitment. Edwards and Saunders (1981) claimed that we should be concerned about the level of commitment

between individuals. By adding commitment level to the list of internal variables, the influence of commitment on the decision process can be studied. It also makes it plausible to study the effects of other internal or external variables on the level of commitment itself.

Time is another important factor that has not been used extensively in other theoretical frameworks. Ponsetti and Cate (1988) described the process of marital dissolution and the possible changes in probability of divorce over time, that is, from the first recognition of marital dissatisfaction to the initiation of action toward securing a legal divorce decree. These researchers described three types of marital dissolution (rapid, gradual, and extended) and showed how selected relationship dimensions change as persons progressed through the divorce process. One of the main concerns expressed by Kelly (1986) was that although there are impulsive decisions to divorce, more often an individual contemplated the possibility of divorce for months and sometimes years before committing to the decision to leave a relationship.

Finally, by incorporating the divorce literature into the model's framework gaps in existing literature can be recognized. Who divorces is known, but more empirical data needs to be gathered on the actual decision to divorce, who initiates it, who is involved, and how it is decided.

Proposed Weaknesses

One problem with the model is a criticism leveled at systems theory itself: The "popularity, generality, and perceived (but not actual) simplicity" (Montgomery, 1987, p.1) contribute to problems with it. Montgomery and Fewer (1988) try to overcome such problems with systems theory by suggesting the following: "(1) Define the system being investigated. (2) Use appropriate language. (3) Avoid non-explanations. (4) Think of systems as unified entities. (5) Maintain strict differentiation of levels" (pp. 23-26). The authors attempted to utilize the suggestions of Montgomery and Fewer (1988) in this paper to overcome the biases of systems theory.

A second problem with this divorce initiation model is that it does not account for many personal reasons for divorce, such as sexual or emotional problems. Personal variables found by

such researchers as Albrecht and Kunz (1980), Ambert (1979), Cleek and Pearson (1985), Kelly (1986), Kitson and Raschke (1981), and Thurnher, et al., (1983) were omitted. One could argue that these personal characteristics may also form inputs into the divorce initiation process and that they should be included. Personal reasons for divorce remains an area for further theoretical development and empirical study.

Conclusion

This adapted model has the potential to provide a broader and more accurate conceptual framework in understanding the initiation of the divorce process within families. It depicts gaps in the research and suggests propositions for which no support has yet been found in the research. In doing so it opens many new doors for future research projects. Further efforts need to be made to develop integrated models of the divorce initiation process (Huber & Spitze, 1980; Kitson & Raschke, 1981) and to incorporate multivariate analysis using the proposed model.

The most common framework used to analyze divorce has been exchange theory, but Kitson and Raschke (1981) claim that other models should also be explored. McGregor et al. (1987) have opened the door on divorce processes by developing a model through which the lack of knowledge about family member participation, especially for children in the decision-making process, can be more easily studied.

They also, unknowingly, may have accomplished something else. With all the factors and pressures that can pull a marriage apart, it is in some ways a more interesting issue of why and how so many couples remain together and what distinguishes the married from the divorced (Trost, 1986). This model allows for studying those who think about divorce but do not go through with it. Booth and White (1980) examined married couples and asked if they had thought about divorce within the last two years. A high percentage had, which suggests that they must have been influenced by certain variables against making such a decision. The "flip side" of this model could be marital stability and the factors that influence the decision to stay married.

There is need for continued theory development in the area of the divorce process. McGregor and associates

(1987) have made this opportunity possible by providing a basic framework applicable to the study of other family processes. □

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Error Correction

The labels and the key were omitted from the figures in the Research Section article, *Calcium Intake and Knowledge of Osteoporosis in University Women* (Spring 1992, pp. 80-84). The figures should have appeared as follows:

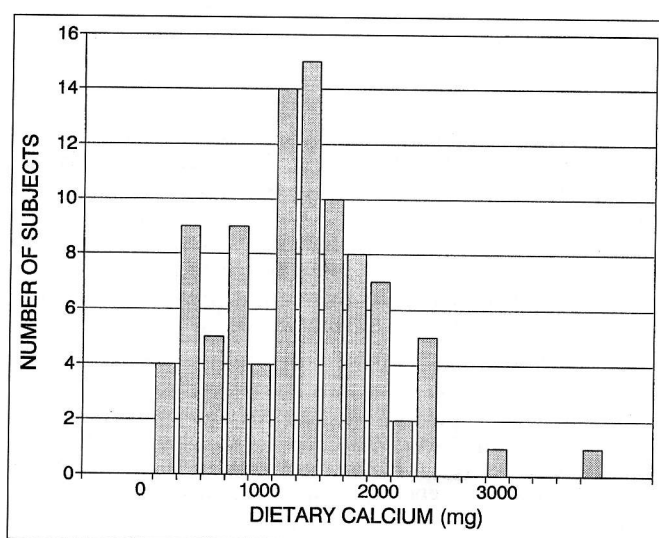


Figure 1. Frequency distribution of dietary calcium intakes derived from food records.

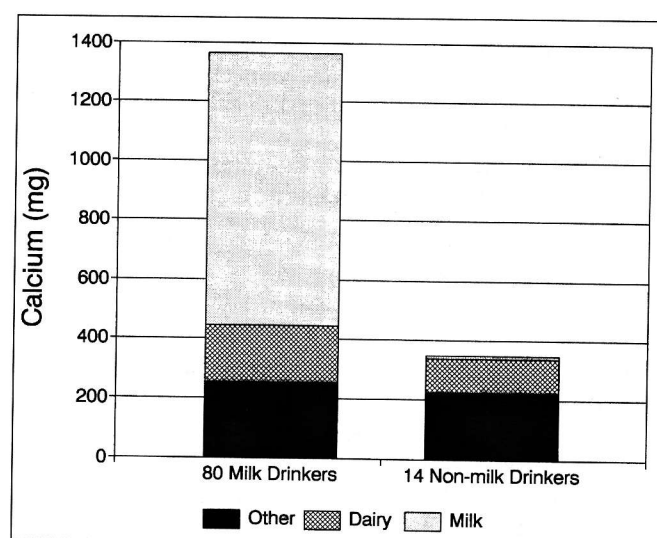


Figure 2. Mean dietary sources of calcium in milk drinkers and non-milk drinkers.

Abstracts of Current Literature

Family and Consumer Studies

Alternative paradigms for helping families change themselves.

Morgaine, Carol A. (1992)
Family Relations, 41(1), 12-17.

The historical and philosophical foundations of family life education have influenced professionals in their endeavors to help families change themselves. This article elucidates the relationship between those foundational influences and the paradigms of knowledge and action commonly used with the profession. In this article, three paradigms (instrumental/technical, interpretative, and critical/emancipatory) are examined as to both their history and their applicability in family life education.

In short, the instrumental/technical paradigm is concerned with satisfying the needs and wants related to shaping and controlling one's environment. Family life education programs based on instrumental/technical paradigms often take the form of behavioristic approaches which attempt to control human interactions that are thought to be the cause of problems. Interpretive paradigms, on the other hand, are based on the human need to understand self and others. They are concerned with developing interpretations of the meanings which constitute social reality. Family life education programs based on an interpretive paradigm view the life experiences of participants as unique rather than as conforming to a norm. And finally, critical/emancipatory paradigms are similar to the interpretive paradigms but differ as the critical/emancipatory paradigm facilitates a consideration of the ways in which personal development has been affected by systemic structures, myths, and assumptions. Enlightenment, as a desired end in the critical/emancipatory program, is not controlled or manipulated by family life educators but occurs naturally as altered self-perceptions emerge.

This article explores the historical influences within the family life education profession and suggests that diverse paradigms of knowledge and action will facilitate different ends. Implications for reconceptualizing family life education practices are explored and ways to reconceptualize family life education are suggested.

Extended warranties: Consumer and manufacturer perceptions.

Kelley, C.A., and Conant, J.S. (1991)
The Journal of Consumer Affairs, 25(1), 68-83.

Extended warranties are becoming increasingly popular, both among consumers and manufacturers. In this study, consumer and manufacturer perceptions of why extended warranties are bought and sold are evaluated and compared.

A cross-sectional study was undertaken with two separate samples, one manufacturer and one consumer. Although two distinct survey research instruments were developed, many of the same questions were asked of both groups to test for differences between the two groups. The distinguishing characteristics of each group, as well as the specific nature of each questionnaire, are reviewed separately.

For the manufacturer sample and questionnaire, a survey research instrument was developed and mailed to the marketing vice-presidents in 241 major household appliance manufacturing firms located throughout the United States. For the consumer sample and questionnaire, 205 students enrolled in evening business classes at a large western American university had questionnaires distributed to them.

A series of MANOVAs followed by Roy-Bargmann univariate stepdown F-tests were used to test for differences in demographic characteristics as they relate to the exploratory research propositions. Results indicate that consumers seem to view extended warranties as a way of reducing perceived risk. Manufacturers reveal that they market extended warranties both to generate revenue and to provide service to customers.

Although the results of this study are exploratory, they have implications for public policy-makers.

The effects of job characteristics on marital quality: Specifying linking mechanisms.

Hughes, D. (1992)
Journal of Marriage and the Family, 54, 31-42.

This study evaluates a conceptual model which hypothesizes that two dimensions of work-family interference, structural role difficulties, and negative mood spillover, intervene in the direct relationship between discrete characteristics of work and marital quality. The research purpose is to test hypotheses regarding the extent to which dimensions of work-family interference mediate relationships between job characteristics and marital outcomes. The extent to which gender and parental status moderate relationships between major study variables are also investigated.

The sample consists of 334 male and 188 female married white-collar workers from an American pharmaceutical company. Self-report questionnaires were distributed by inter-office mail. Participation in the study was voluntary. Subscales were used to assess psychosocial job characteristics including decision authority, psychological workload, skill discretion, supervisor task competence, insecurity, and supervisor family sensitivity. Multiple regression analyses were used.

Results indicate that job characteristics predict dimensions of work-family interference which, in turn, predict marital quality. Some support for mediation was also provided by the finding that job-related difficulty in meeting family demands partially accounted for the significant relationship between job insecurity and marital tension.

Findings from this study suggest two major directions for future research. First, the process of psychological spillover deserves more empirical attention, and second, psychosocial job characteristics are important sources of conflict/tension for workers (and their families) and therefore should be included in future studies.

Employment resources and housework in Canada.

Brayfield, A.A. (1992)
Journal of Marriage and the Family, 54, 19-30.

Although scholars have examined forms of gender inequality from a variety of perspectives, they had not identified how employment resources, such as workplace authority, impinge on the seemingly private realm of feminine-typed housekeeping tasks. This study explicitly distinguishes the effects of wife's and husband's personal or absolute work resources from the effects of their resources relative to each other. In particular, this study examines how personal employment characteristics mediate the impact of resource differentials between husband and wife on contributions to traditionally female housework. Moreover, this study identifies how the separate and interactive effects of absolute and relative employment resources differ for women and men.

The data for this analysis came from a Canadian study. A four-stage replicated probability design stratified by geographic area and locality size yielded a completed national sample of 2,577 Canadians (1,243 women and 1,334 men) from all ten provinces in 1983. After a listwise deletion, the final sample consisted of 531 Canadian women and 510 Canadian men. The study uses respondents' self-estimates of their share of five separate traditionally female tasks — with shares ranging from 0 to 100%. These tasks are 1) cooking meals, 2) cleaning up after meals, 3) doing laundry, 4) doing routine general housecleaning, and 5) shopping for groceries. Ordinary least squares regression analysis, the Chow test, and the adjusted R-square are used for the data analysis.

Results indicate that Canadian women have a greater responsibility than Canadian men for each of the five traditionally female tasks, regardless of whether or not they are employed. In addition, the average proportion of feminine-typed housework done by men varies by the relative employment status of the couple. Parameter estimates show that absolute and relative employment resources affect women's and men's shares of feminine-typed tasks in multiple ways.

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Clothing and Textiles

Color communication in the 90s.

McDonald, R. (1992).
Textile Chemist and Colorist, 24(4), 11-15.

This report is a preliminary discussion within a larger project still ongoing at the time of publication. The purpose of the larger project included: 1) the derivation of a model of color vision which would predict the color appearance under various viewing conditions, illuminants, luminance levels, background, and media (i.e. CRT display or surface color); and 2) the development of a means of characterizing different printing devices so that CRT display colors can be accurately reproduced.

Initial data on the relationship between CRT display color and surface color was collected from ten observers. It was found that Hunt's color vision model gave the most reasonable agreement with the visual data. This model has been further refined and developed into the Hunt-ACAM color vision model.

An actual test application of this model has not been performed. The ColourTalk Demonstrator was developed to solve the problem of reproducibility of colors from the CRT to a piece of cloth or a different set of color monitors. Certain elements of the demonstrator are discussed within this paper.

Developments within this field can lead to better communication using computer-aided design systems and on the international level in trade.

The relative importance of fibre friction and torsional and bending rigidities in cotton sliver, roving, and yarn.

DeLuca, L.B., and Thibodeaux, D.P. (1992)
Textiles Research Journal, 24(4), 192-196.

The purpose of this study was to further analyze the process of cotton sliver drafting force, at controlled temperatures and humidities, as the key to determining how fibre-to-fibre friction, fibre rigidities, and fibre breaking tenacity and elongation play a role in the cohesive forces of cotton sliver, roving, and yarn.

The specimen used was a 590.54 (1.0 hank) roving with a 9.567 twist factor (1.0 twist multiplier) at 65% RH; temperatures used were 2.2°C (36°F), 21.1°C (70°F), and 58.9°C (138°F). The actual method for measuring was reported in an earlier paper (Baril, DeLuca, & Mayer, 1972) and was not repeated herein.

It was found that for cotton sliver fibre torsional and bending rigidities were more important to sliver cohesion forces than fibre-to-fibre frictional forces. For roving, the twist and improved fibre cohesion led to fibre-to-fibre frictional forces to be more important to roving cohesive forces than fibre torsional and bending rigidities. For yarns the fibre tenacity and elongation contribute mainly to yarn tenacity and elongation, fibre friction and rigidities play a secondary role. The practicality and possibility of producing better yarns under these conditions is discussed.

A comparison of historical and contemporary skin clothing used in North Greenland: An ethnohistorical approach.

Oakes, J., and Riewe, R. (1992)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 10(3), 76-85.

The purpose of this study was to identify cultural, environmental, religious, and political factors which possibly

influence the production techniques of seamstresses in the traditional Inuit society. The authors used the ethnohistorical method, combining sources which ranged from libraries and museums to participant-observations and attribute analysis.

The influences from the industrialized West and Europe were evident in techniques used by contemporary seamstresses (i.e., needles and thread instead of bone and sinew), as well as fabrication (some synthetic fabrics are being substituted in some garments). Furthermore, style features which have changed since historical times were also discussed.

The understanding of differing construction techniques may be beneficial to the apparel industry, as well as scholars and clothing historians.

Opportunities for cooperation between educators and apparel and textile trade associations.

Kunz, G.I., Lewis, C.J., and Coffin, I.A. (1992)
Clothing and Textiles Research Journal, 10(4), 9-16.

The purpose of this study was to discover the nature of apparel and trade associations (ATTAs) and to examine the potential for greater involvement between apparel and textile educators/students and the ATTAs. A telephone interview of 99 ATTA executives was conducted. The interview asked the executives how they viewed the potential for cooperation, the history of any cooperation, their view of the need for cooperation, and their willingness to cooperate, as well as the problems facing ATTAs.

Many of the ATTA executives expressed interest, however, they also displayed their ignorance of the educational programs available. Those who were involved in the past reported it as an unpleasant experience, including poorly prepared students.

A future of involvement would mutually benefit all the parties involved. However, the initiative needs to come from the educators. This study revealed that there is interest on the part of the ATTA executives; however, it is still left in the hands of the educator and/or students.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Packaging and design of consumer goods: A comparative study between Turkey and Jordan. Ates, H., and Hamdan, J. (1992). *Journal of Consumer Studies and Home Economics*, 16, 51-62.

Handle of weft knit fabrics. Chen, P.L., Barker, R.L., Smith, G.W., and Scruggs, B. (1992). *Textile Research Journal*, 62(4), 200-211.

Export competition in the man-made fibre industry. Dardis, R., and Prem, R. (1992). *Home Economics Research Journal*, 20(3), 219-230.

Meanings in mid-nineteenth century dress: Images from New England women's writings. Gordon, B. (1992). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 10(3), 44-53.

Dress and identity. Roach-Higgins, M.E., and Eicher, J.B. (1992). *Clothing and Textiles Research Journal*, 10(4), 1-8.

A two-stage sorption model of the coupled diffusion of moisture and heat in wool fabrics. Li, Y., and Holcombe, B.V. (1992). *Textile Research Journal*, 62(4), 211-217.

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Use of focus groups in evaluating nutrition education materials.

Trenkner, L., and Achterberg, C. (1991)
Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 91, 1577-1581.

Focus groups, a qualitative means of collecting evaluation data, can augment individual interviews in the evaluation of nutrition education programs and materials. This article gave a detailed description of this process and an application of it to evaluate specific educational tools.

Planning for focus groups begins with a careful review of the study objectives. Group moderators must be trained in listening and directive skills to ensure success of the focus group. Training in this study included assigned reading, demonstrations, lectures, and a review of transcripts of previous group sessions. The interview schedule contains open-ended questions which must be carefully worded to avoid response bias, provide direction, and encourage discussion. A pilot focus group should be conducted to test the questions, check interview length, evaluate responses, and train moderators. The authors suggested that at least one pilot group be conducted for each new project, regardless of the past experience of the moderator.

In this study, six focus groups, each with 4 to 6 participants, were conducted. Groups were kept homogeneous with regard to gender and lifestage. All group sessions were videotaped to assist with observing the intensity of comments. Sessions began by thanking participants followed by a description of the process. The moderator followed the interview schedule encouraging participation and using general probing questions. The schedule took about 30 minutes to complete. Participants were then asked for specific suggestions to improve one of the pamphlets. This required up to 30 additional minutes. Focus groups were analyzed one at a time using a predesigned coding form where positive, negative, and neutral comments were tallied and counted. It took about 3 hours to analyze a 40-minute focus group tape. Interpretation of the focus group was based on overall impressions, notes taken during the session, and direct quotations from the tape.

Advantages of focus groups included their accessibility for development and/or evaluation of smaller nutrition programs. They are also economical and provide quick results. Qualitative data can be difficult to analyze and ideas or recommendations may evolve that are impractical or impossible. The authors concluded that focus groups may provide an ideal forum for identifying the varied needs a given target group requires in order to make use of an intervention program.

Indoor walking program increases lean body composition in older women.

Bergman, E., and Boyungs, J. (1991)
Journal of the American Dietetic Association, 91, 1433-1435.

To explore the role exercise plays in body composition, 27 women (mean age 55.9±11.0 years; range=40 to 82 years) participated in an indoor walking program during the winter months. At the onset of the program, weight and height were measured and body composition was estimated using bioelectric impedance. Fitness levels were estimated using

resting heart rate and heart rate after a treadmill test. Usual food intake was determined with a food frequency questionnaire. All measurements and estimates were repeated at the end of the 10-week program. The exercise program consisted of walking four nights per week for ten weeks. Exercise times progressed from 20 minutes to 40 minutes of walking at a rate that elevated the pulse to 75-80% of maximum heart rate.

Resting heart rate and heart rate during exercise improved over the 10-week exercise program, indicating an increase in fitness level. Food frequency questionnaire results indicated that fat intake was greater than 30% of total energy intake. Body weight did not change significantly over the program, while body composition did change. Percent body fat and total body fat decreased. Total body lean weight and the lean:fat ratio also increased during exercise.

The authors concluded that a well-defined indoor walking program could decrease body fat and increase body lean tissue levels. The combination of walking and decreased dietary fat intake might result in further reduction of percent body fat.

Lentils quality — Effects of artificial drying and six-month storage.

Tang, J., Sokhansanj, S., Sosulski, F., and Slinkard, A. (1991)
Canadian Institute of Food Science and Technology Journal, 24, 283-286.

To determine the effects of seed storage for six months at room temperature on seed breakage, germination, and cooking quality, artificially dried high moisture Laird lentil samples were investigated. In a 3x7 factorial design, three levels of initial moisture content (16%, 18%, 20%) and seven drying temperatures (40°, 45°, 50°, 55°, 60°, 70°, 80°C.) were studied. All samples were dried to a moisture content of 13.4% before being stored for 6 months.

There was a trend toward increased seed breakage with higher initial moisture content. Breakage tended to decrease with increased drying temperature. Initial moisture content and drying temperature did not significantly affect hardness of cooked seeds. However, stored samples were harder to cook than fresh dried samples. Effects of storage on the hardness of the naturally dried seed were negligible, while the effect was significant for high temperature dried seed. Germination rates were not affected by seed storage, while drying temperatures of 70°C. and 80°C resulted in much lower germination rates.

Nutrition in space: Evidence from the U.S. and the U.S.S.R.

Lane, H.W. (1992)
Nutrition Reviews, 50, 3-6.

This review article presented some of the data collected on the influence of space flight on human physiological systems. To deal with some of the difficulties encountered when determining the effect of space flight on body composition, a four-compartment model of body composition (water, bone, muscle, and fat) is being explored to replace the conventional two-compartment model (fat mass and lean body mass).

Fluid balance studies in microgravity have shown decreases in total body fluids in the order of 500 to 900 mL. Plasma volume decreases from 6% to 13% of preflight volumes have been determined. Decreases of 2% to 20% of preflight erythrocytes have also been reported. Fluid losses may be due, in part, to motion sickness as well as to the diuresis resulting from the headward shift in body fluids in the absence of gravity.

Loss of fat tissue in space has not been well-documented. Bone loss appears to be a gradual process whether from compact or trabecular bone. Mineral loss lasting six months after return to earth has been shown. Skylab studies indicated increased excretion of calcium and phosphorus during space flight. Muscle atrophy in space contributes to changes in lean body mass and increased urinary excretion of potassium, nitrogen, and uric acid. A combination of high protein intake and in-flight exercise may minimize muscle wasting, though high protein intakes may lead to other physiological problems. Further research is necessary to determine the relationships among protein intake, energy intake, hydration, and exercise in microgravity. Loss of fat tissue in space has not been well-documented.

Energy requirements of humans in space are being researched. Mean energy utilization for Shuttle and Skylab crews has been reported to range from 1957 to 3576 kcal/day. It appears that the total energy needed to work in space will range between 30 and 45 kcal/kg. Further research in the US space program will include measurement of energy expenditure in individuals and expenditures associated with different tasks in a microgravity environment. Endocrine responses in space related to fluid balance and cardiovascular changes have been well-documented. Slight increases in blood glucose have been seen early in flight, followed by decreases. Compared to preflight levels, insulin levels have remained increased for seven days after landing. No preflight to postflight differences have been found for blood glucose, pyruvic acid, or lactic acid. Further metabolic studies are needed to characterize how physiological changes induced by space flight are related to nutritional needs.

The transfer of alcohol to human milk. Effects on flavor and the infant's behavior.

Mennella, J.A., and Beauchamp, G.K. (1991)
The New England Journal of Medicine, 325, 981-985.

Twelve lactating women (median age — 30 years) and their infants (median age — 120 days) participated in a study to determine if alcohol consumption by nursing mothers affects the sensory qualities of human milk and the behavior of the infant in the short term. Each mother-infant pair was tested on two days separated by one week. Mothers were instructed not to wear perfumes or to use scented soaps on the testing days. As well, for three days prior to each test session, mothers were asked to refrain from consuming alcohol or sulphurous foods such as onions, garlic, or broccoli. On the first test day, women consumed either orange juice or orange juice with ethanol in a dose less than that which is known to inhibit the milk ejection reflex yet which would approximate the ethanol content of one beer for an average sized woman (0.3 g ethanol per kg body weight). On the second test day the alternate beverage was consumed. Milk samples were taken prior to beverage consumption and at 30 minutes, 1, 2, and 3 hours

post-consumption. Samples were analyzed for ethanol concentration and odor was evaluated by a sensory panel. Infants were fed on demand and weighed after each feeding to determine intake of breastmilk. Test session feedings were videotaped and sleeping habits recorded through the next day.

Alcohol consumption significantly increased the perceived odor intensity of breastmilk as determined by the sensory panel. Intensity of odor peaked 30 minutes to 1 hour after alcohol consumption. Changes in odor across sampling times paralleled changes in alcohol concentration of breastmilk. Milk intake was reduced significantly in infants when women had consumed alcohol (120.4 ± 9.5 mL) compared to the session where women drank only orange juice (156.4 ± 8.2 mL). No significant difference was observed in the number of feedings or the total length of feedings. No significant difference in the total amount of time infants slept was noted. However, the number of times the infant slept increased on the days when mothers consumed alcohol. Mean estimated ethanol dose for the infants was 5.1 ± 0.8 mg per kg body weight, which was 0.5-3.3% of the maternal dose. Mechanisms for these changes remain to be elucidated.

Supplementary listing of articles:

Effects on coronary artery disease of lipid-lowering diet, or diet plus cholestyramine, in the St. Thomas' Atherosclerosis Regression Study (STARS). Watts, G.F., Lewis, B., Brunt, J.N.H.,

Lewis, E.S., Coltart, D.J., Smith, L.D.R., Mann, J.I., and Swan, A.V. (1992). *The Lancet*, 339, 563-569.

Folate deficiency and cervical dysplasia. Butterworth, Jr., C.E., Hatch, K.D., Macaluso, M., Cole, P., Sauberlich, H.E., Soong, S., Borst, M., and Baker, V.V. (1992). *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 267, 528-533.

National Cholesterol Education Program (NCEP): Highlights of the report of the expert panel on blood cholesterol levels in children and adolescents. NCEP Expert Panel on Blood Cholesterol Levels in Children and Adolescents. (1992). *Pediatrics*, 89, 495-501.

Breast milk and subsequent intelligence quotient in children born preterm. Lucas, A., Morley, R., Cole, T.J., Lister, G., and Leeson-Payne, C. (1992). *The Lancet*, 339, 261-264.

Dietary fat reduction strategies. Smith-Schneider, L.M., Sigman-Grant, M.J., and Kris-Etherton, P.M. (1992). *Journal of the American Dietetic Association*, 92, 34-38.

Encouraging, supporting, and maintaining breastfeeding: The obstetrician's role. Newman, J. (1991). *Journal of the Society of Obstetricians and Gynecologists of Canada*, 13, 15-17, 20-23.

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Contact: Information Office, United Nations Association in Canada, 63 Sparks Street, Suite 808, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5A6.

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To obtain: Contact Active Living Alliance Office, 1600 James Naismith Drive, Suite 312, Gloucester, Ontario K1B 5N4.

Let's Go

This handbook outlines the steps involved in setting up a skill-development program for children living in low income neighborhoods. The skill activities are non-school in nature and include both athletic and arts-related activities for children 5 to 15 years of age. There is no charge for this publication.

To obtain: Contact Publications Unit, Health Services and Promotion Branch, Jeanne Mance Building, Tunney's Pasture, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 1B4.

Women and Poverty Fact Sheet

This is the first of a series of new fact sheets on women's issues available at no charge.

To obtain: Contact Canadian Advisory Council on the Status of Women, P.O. Box 1541, Station B, 110 O'Connor Street, 9th Floor, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5R5.

Plain Language: Clear and Simple/ Pour un style clair et simple

This 59-page guide, available in English and French, provides advice on organizing information, using plain language, constructing readable sentences and paragraphs, and much more. It is available in print, audio cassette, or

braille versions for \$6.95 (plus a 6% charge for shipping and handling).

Contact: Canada Communication Group, Publishing, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0S9.

Heart Health/Info Coeur Newsletter

This 8-page quarterly newsletter contains informative, readable articles on fitness, research, medical treatment, nutrition, and other heart health topics. This publication is available free of charge in English and French.

Contact: Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada, 160 George Street, Suite 200, Ottawa, Ontario K1N 9M2.

Pork Publications

Just the Facts ... About Pork Production in Canada and *Just the Facts ... About the Safety of Canadian Pork* are two free fact sheets, available in English and French, written for health professionals and educators.

To obtain: Contact Canada Pork, 405 Britannia Road East, Suite 106, Mississauga, Ontario L4Z 3E6.

Sport Nutrition for the Athletes of Canada

The three components — the Workbook for Athletes, Information for Coaches, and a motivational video are designed to help athletes at all levels make wise food choices. It is appropriate for all coaches, athletes, their parents, and others interested in sports nutrition. The workbook is \$19.95 with a binder (or \$14.95 without a binder), Information for Coaches is \$24.95 with a binder (\$19.95 without a binder), and the video is \$29.95. Add \$3.00 postage and handling to your order plus 7% GST.

To obtain: Contact Sport Medicine Council of Canada, 502-1600 James Naismith Drive, Gloucester, Ontario K1B 5N4 or Beef Information Centre, 1081 Roosevelt Crescent, North Vancouver, B.C. V7P 1M4.

Produce Hotline

Do you have questions on fresh vegetables and fruits - how to buy, prepare, or use? If so, call the Fresh for Flavour Foundation's hotline number: 1-800-668-7763.

Nutrition Guide to Fresh Fruits and Vegetables

This full color, 22" x 25" poster shows the key nutrients found in over 40 fresh fruits and vegetables. Single copies are available free of charge.

Contact: The Fresh for Flavour Foundation, 310-1101 Prince of Wales Drive, Ottawa, Ontario K2C 3W7.

Guide to Nutrition Labelling

This consumer booklet explains, in simple terms, how to decipher and understand the nutritional information and

claims found on food labels and in advertising. Limited quantities are available at no charge.

To obtain: Contact your local Consumer and Corporate Affairs Canada office.

Your Baby's Health and the Environment/ L'Environnement et la sante de votre enfant

This booklet for parents is intended to help reduce health risks posed by toxic substances used in the home and is available at no charge.

To obtain: Contact Publications Division, Communications Branch, Health and Welfare Canada, Jeanne Mance Building, Tunney's Pasture, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 0K9.

Kido Personal Safety Kit

This teaching kit for abuse prevention addresses the issue of physical, sexual, and emotional abuse as it relates to 9 to 11-year old children. It is designed to help children experience and develop positive life skills that enhance their abilities to interact assertively and to avoid getting caught in the victim/offender syndrome. Its cost is \$45.00 plus GST.

To obtain: Contact Outreach Abuse Prevention, 205 Bond Street East, Oshawa, Ontario L1G 1B4.

Nutrition Fact Sheets

Choices is the name of a series of fact sheets developed by The Canadian Dietetic Association. Written by dietitians for consumers, these 8 1/2" x 11" fact sheets cover current nutrition topics such as how to assess fad diets and food allergies. These fact sheets are produced as black and white duplication masters to facilitate reproduction and distribution.

This valuable resource for worksite promotion, bulletin boards, newsletters, and client handouts costs \$20.00 + 7% GST for a one-year (6 fact sheets) subscription for non-members of the Canadian Dietetic Association (\$15.00 for members).

Contact: The Canadian Dietetic Association, 480 University Avenue, Suite 601, Toronto, Ontario M5G 1V2.

Cool Can't Exist on Cola Alone

This 12-minute VHS video, aimed at grade 6-8 students, gives a fun and snappy approach to nutrition. The four food groups are covered, as well as variety and moderation in eating.

Copies are available for purchase (\$10.00) or loan to educators within Canada Safeway's operations (Thunder Bay west to Vancouver Island).

Contact: Public Relations Manager for Canada Safeway in Winnipeg, Calgary, or Vancouver.

... In Products

Microwave Clothes Dryers

It looks like a conventional dryer, uses 25% less energy, and reduces shrinking and damage to clothing - the

microwave clothes dryer is in its final stages of development.

Drying occurs as microwave energy is absorbed by the water in wet clothes. This generates heat which changes the water from liquid to vapor. Water vapor is then transported out of the drying chamber by the air stream. Temperature and humidity sensors terminate drying to prevent the fabric from overheating. Microwaves target the water molecules, not the fabric itself, reducing drying time (a 1.8 kg load of mixed clothing dries in less than 15 minutes), shrinkage, and heat damage. Metal zippers present no arcing or heating problems.

Move over gas and conventional electric dryers - microwave is on its way!

Source: *Inter Connect Newsletter*, The City of Calgary Electric System, Volume 4, Issue 4, 1992.

Pressure-Treated ("Preserved") Wood and Wood Preservatives

Pressure-treated wood is popular for building fences, decks, play structures, and house foundations. Proper pressure treatment with preservative chemicals helps protect lumber from insects and fungi which can destroy it. However, the preservative chemicals are toxic. The chemicals and the treated wood must be handled and used carefully to avoid ill effects on people, environment, and animals.

Since little is known about the long-term effects of frequent exposure (high or low levels), take precautions:

- wear gloves when handling pressure treated wood
- use a dust mask when sawing treated wood
- wear goggles to protect eyes when sawing or machining
- wash exposed skin thoroughly after contact
- wash clothes separately before re-wearing.

ThermaStat

Developed by DuPont, *ThermaStat* is a new polymer of micro-sized hollow-core polyester fibres, bulked or massed for greater thermal efficiency. It is used in top-of-the-line thermal wear for rugged outdoor sports applications.

The fibre itself consists of more, smaller hollow cores than used in *Thermax*, DuPont's current certification mark for thermal sportswear. This provides more air pockets for greater warmth. At the same time, used in fine-filament yarns, *ThermaStat* fibres block radiant heat loss from the body while the increased number of pores in the fabric accelerates movement of perspiration away from the body.

Source: *Textile World*, January 1992.

... In Ideas

Active Living Challenge Program/ Le Défi Canadien De Vie Active

This new program will replace the Canada Fitness Awards (CFA) Program, a 20-year old program which used a performance recognition system to encourage Canadian

children and youth to develop habits of regular physical activity.

This new program, the Active Living Challenge Program, is based on the concept of active living. Its objective is to encourage and enable daily, enjoyable physical activity throughout life. Fun and personal progress, rather than performance and achievement, will be emphasized. It will cater to all potential participants with a low-key, gradual approach that will attract those who are least inclined towards physical activity.

The "Challenge" will actually be four programs, each aimed at a particular age group (age ranges between 5 and 18 years) and emphasizing a certain theme. Although each successive program will build on the previous one, each can also stand on its own.

This program is suitable for a variety of settings — from schools and recreation centres to club camps and home.

Programs One and Two (for ages 5-8 and 9-11) will be ready for implementation in fall 1992; programs Three and Four (for ages 12-14 and 15-18) will be launched in fall 1993.

Source: *Inter-Action Newsletter on Active Living for Children and Youth*, Fitness and Amateur Sport, Vol. 5, No. 2, 1992.

Advanced Houses Program

While R-2000 houses continue to leave their mark on traditional home construction, builders and designers are already looking ahead to the next generation of improved housing technology. A few months ago, ten teams across Canada were awarded contracts to design prototypes of the Advanced House. Each design has to have one-quarter the energy consumption and one-half the water consumption of a similar conventional house.

Technologies and products that are developed, tested, and proven through the Advanced Houses Program are expected to be included in future upgrades of the R-2000 housing standard.

Once the houses are completed, they will be open to the public for one year.

This project, initiated by the Canada Center for Mineral and Energy Technology (the research and development arm of Energy, Mines and Resources Canada) is done cooperatively with the Canadian Home Builders' Association.

Source: *Inter Connect*, Volume 4, Issue 4, May/June 1992.

New Beef Grading

Consumer research showed a definite need to improve the tenderness and consistency of beef. Marbling was reinstated (it had been dropped a few years earlier due to problems in accurately assessing it) as a criterion in the grading of beef.

In order to qualify for A grade (the grade most often sold at retail), a carcass must have at least a trace level of marbling. AA grade beef must contain slight marbling while AAA grade contains more marbling. All carcasses in the A grades will have to meet current criteria — youthful, well-muscled, fine textured bright red lean, and a minimum of 4 mm of firm white fat over the rib eye. Most AAA beef cuts with visible fat removed will still qualify as lean (i.e. have no more than 10% fat on a raw basis). This grading change will allow consumers to be more in control of their fat intake.

Retailers have the option of labelling product as to the specific A grade. Some may do so while others may mix the various A grades together. Consumers wishing to know the specific grade should ask their retailer. Since the majority of beef produced today is AA, it will be the most prevalent grade.

Source: *Meat Probe*, Vol. 8, No. 4, Autumn 1991.

The Lowdown on Mutual Funds

Here are the most common, from safest to most speculative:

- **money market funds** — Usually invest in short-term debt instruments such as Treasury Bills, chartered bank certificates of deposit, or other instruments guaranteed by chartered banks.
- **bond funds** — Low-risk investments with income generated by investments in government or government-guaranteed bonds, issues guaranteed by the chartered banks, and quality corporate debt. Performance varies from fund to fund depending on the fund's investment aims and the skill of the fund manager.
- **dividend funds** — Invest primarily in equity securities with consistent dividend payment records. Because of the special federal dividend tax credit, taxes on dividend income are less than on interest income. Like money market and bond funds, annual returns from dividend funds tend to be stable.
- **balanced funds** — As the name suggests, these aim to "balance" the portfolio with a mix of debt instruments, bonds, stocks, and preferred shares. The idea is to combine the generally higher returns of stocks with the stability offered by bonds. Most focus on long-term goals. Some balanced funds qualify for RRSPs.
- **growth funds** — This is the most popular type of fund. They invest mainly in diversified portfolios of equity securities and aim for high returns. The volatility of the stock market means investors would be in for the long-term, 10 years or more. A rule of thumb: look for a record of both high and stable returns over time.
- **specialty funds** — These sacrifice the principle of diversification to focus on a well-defined commodity or sector such as gold or oil and gas or small capitalization companies. Investing in these funds can be risky.
- **global funds** — Invest in stocks and/or debt instruments of Canadian companies and companies based throughout the world. Generally, global funds are considered risky because of fluctuating foreign exchange rates and uncertainties that may exist in different parts of the world.
- **mortgage funds** — Invest mostly in residential, industrial, and commercial mortgages. These may offer high income and, depending on the quality of the mortgages, a relatively safe investment. However, they can be less liquid than other types of funds, so find out how much notice is required to cash in units. If mortgage loans are in default, the fund may have difficulty raising the cash to pay you quickly.
- **real estate funds** — Invest mostly in residential, commercial, and industrial real estate. Not for those who need liquidity, as they require a longer notice of redemption than other types of funds. You cannot compare the

volatility of these funds with other mutual funds because of the way real estate funds are valued.

Source: *Canadian Consumer*, January/February 1992.

Family Violence Initiative

This 1991-1995 federal government initiative will fund projects to eliminate and prevent child abuse, wife assault, and elder abuse. It is broad-based but will ensure attention to the needs of aboriginal people, residents of rural and remote areas, members of ethno-cultural minority groups, and persons with disabilities.

The seven main goals of the initiative are:

- to involve all Canadians and mobilize community action in the effort to reduce family violence;
- to strengthen Canada's legal framework for dealing with family violence;
- to establish services in Indian reserves and Inuit communities;
- to strengthen Canada's ability to help victims and stop offenders;
- to provide more housing for abused women and their children;
- to develop better national information on the extent and nature of family violence; and
- to share information and solutions across Canada.

For more information, contact: Family Violence Prevention Division, Social Service Programs Branch, Health and Welfare Canada, Ottawa, Ontario K1A 1B5.

Source: *Canada's Mental Health*, Vol. 40, No. 1, March 1992.

... In Trends

Food Banks

- The first food bank in Canada was created in Edmonton, Alberta in 1981; as of October 1991, 292 food banks were registered with the Canadian Association of Food Banks.
- The highest food bank usage is in Ontario and Atlantic Canada; the lowest is in British Columbia and Quebec.
- Food bank usage increased the most in Quebec and Atlantic Canada and the least in British Columbia and the Prairie Provinces.
- Children under age 18 accounted for about 40% of food bank beneficiaries in 1990.
- Families with children received two-thirds of the food distributed in 1990.
- Welfare (social assistance) was by far the major source of income of food bank recipients in 1990 (68%); the second largest source of income of recipients was employment income (12%).
- The education level of recipients is rising. Nine percent had graduated from college or university in 1991 (up from 4% in 1987); 22% had graduated from high school in 1991 (up from 5% in 1987).
- Most still run out of food, even with aid from a food bank; 12% said this occurred daily; 21% said it occurred

weekly; 23% said this occurred monthly; and 25% said it occurred rarely or never.

Source: *Canadian Social Trends*, Spring 1992.

Appliances and the Environment

As space in landfill sites becomes scarce, appliance manufacturers have begun "*designing to disassembly*" in order to increase recyclability of appliances. The first recyclable appliance is the ukettle, developed in the United States. This electric kettle has fewer parts and fasteners, all of which can be easily identified and taken apart at the end of its useful life. The manufacturer, Great British Kettles, is in the process of making it available in Canada.

Sharp Corporation of Japan has introduced a refrigerator with a *fuzzy logic control system* that learns the usage patterns of consumers. The time and frequency of openings and closings of the door are memorized. Once the control system has learned the usage pattern, it will automatically begin a cooling cycle in advance of the high frequency period to minimize temperature rise.

Dividable oven cavities with slide-in elements that reduce oven cavity size to 2/3 of full volume will result in a 20% energy saving.

Frigidaire refrigerators now have three models where an alarm goes off after the door has been open for three minutes, thereby reducing energy waste when the door is accidentally left open.

Source: The City of Calgary Electric System, Spring 1992.

"Familiar Fashion" for Spring '93

New fashion will be made from old to give the familiar look we find so comforting — new interpretations recycled from old patterns, redesigned evening fabrics for day, washed down colors, and distress fabrics.

Yellow will become a major influence as mid-range colors take the lead. There is an absence of darks, and pale shades are used as neutrals.

The A-line silhouette will predominate with an emphasis on long, feminine full skirts and petticoats.

Lightweight jerseys with a crepe-like texture are among the new fabrics. Other popular fabrics are seersucker, terries, "destroyed" and washed chintz, shantung, denim, challis, and ribbed knits.

Old photos, swamp scenes, animals, fruits, and vegetables are among the major print themes.

Source: *Textile World*, February 1992.

Getting Ready to Research the Solar System

Biosphere 2 is a two year study of living space, for the day when earthlings take to the skies to research the solar system. The group's sealed glass, 6-storey structure covers 3.15 acres in the Arizona desert. It is the world's largest ecosystem.

Everything in the Biosphere 2 environment must be natural, reusable, recyclable, and free of pollution. Jute-backed broadloom and rugs, wall panel fabrics, upholstery, blankets, window blinds, seat batting, pillows, quilts, and mattresses are 100% wool. Clothing is 100% wool or 100% cotton. Bedding and towels are 100% cotton.

Durability, soil and stain resistance take on new importance when the inhabitants are closed in and traffic is concentrated on stairs and corridors. Spills must wipe up without staining and soil must release with vacuuming.

Biosphere 2 has eight biomes — tropical rain forest, savannah, functioning mini-ocean with reef and waves, salt and freshwater marshes, a desert, an extensive temperate agricultural area, and the human habitat.

Source: *Textile World*, March 1992.

Packagers Agree to Reduce

Representatives of Canada's 700 packaging manufacturers announced they will follow a voluntary code that will reduce the amount of packaging going into landfills by about 4.5 tonnes by the year 2000 (half the current amount of 1 tonne/family/year). If the packaging is not reduced by that amount, manufacturers will face a tough regime. Improperly packaged products will be banned from the

market and heavy penalties imposed against those still producing them.

Source: *Environment Business*, Spring 1992.

Home-Based Businesses

Close to one in four Canadian households are involved in some form of home-based business... and the number is growing. A recent study, done for a committee of government and business, examined the nature and extent of home business and the environment in which it operates. British Columbia, the Prairies, and the Atlantic Provinces had the most home businesses.

Home-based businesses are an important component of changing work patterns, but few municipalities encourage these small businesses. The biggest challenge will be to have municipalities recognize their contribution and change bylaws to support and encourage their existence.

Source: *Calgary Herald*, May 19, 1992.

Home economists have a goal: **to improve the quality of life for families.**

Invest in families

A donation to the Canadian Home Economics Association Foundation will help support the effective dissemination of information on nutrition, clothing, shelter, and financial management to families in Canada — through research, development of educational tools and techniques and public service projects.



Send your contribution to:

Canadian Home Economics Association Foundation
c/o Treasurer
3807 Vialoux Drive
Winnipeg, Manitoba R3R 0A5

My contribution of \$ _____ is enclosed.

Name _____

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What do you say when . . . ?

*What do you say when told: 'Home Economics is passé,
Women's Studies is where it's at!'*

Nancy Laurie

Home economics and women studies, as two fields of study, share a number of similar characteristics. Both are connected by the concept of "women" in two ways: their professionals are almost exclusively women; and, their subject area concerns the everyday lives of women. Home economics studies are perceived to centre around the home. Women studies specialists focus on the lives of women. They also share historical roots, similar concepts in the construct of their goals, and similar problems in establishing rigorous research and methodology that reaffirms it as a scholarly discipline.

At the turn of the century home economics and women studies connect historically through the women's movement in Canada. Domestic science taught in public schools, training centres for domestics or at the college level, was strongly promoted and sanctioned by the maternal feminists of the era. Very few women entered universities for traditional classical studies. Barriers were present from the cradle, with gender divisive social attitudes, mores, and values. Domestic science education was seen as the 'proper sphere' of education for women. It also represented new career choices, professional status, and a chance for financial independence that was sanctioned by a Victorian patriarchal society. This was a significant opportunity for female autonomy. Few women had the resources that would allow them to choose or combine the culturally distinct public world of men and the private world of women.

The energetic thrust of the women's movement had weakened significantly by the 1920s. Two factors discouraged further overt activity from these social reformers. The first was the maternal feminists' success in achieving prohibition and women's suffrage at the federal level. The second was the social and economic dishevel resulting from the effects of the First World War and, later, the Depression. In contrast, home economics increased its knowledge and subject base and had an outreach that touched the lives of most Canadian urban and rural women.

Home economics and feminism were destined to be reconnected when the contemporary women's movement regained momentum and picked up headline notoriety in the 1960s. The more radical feminist leaders vigorously attacked maternal feminism as the perpetrator, and identified home economics as the accomplice, in the crime of keeping women tied to the private world of the housewife. There was no apparent understanding of the newer roles home economists played in their diverse fields of expertise such as textile research or dietetics. Nor was there any consideration given to the historical context surrounding the instigation of this profession and the liberating role it played in the lives of Victorian Canadian women. Home economics as a profession, academic discipline, and philosophy, was disdained by feminists who sought a different description of what being a woman meant; one that was not defined solely in terms of a woman's role as wife and mother.

Women studies was the academic institutional response to the women's movement of the 60s and 70s. A limited number of programmes were established across Canada "to study women as an academic subject and as a basis of policy, in order to understand the situation of women and try to change it" (York University, 1990-91). It was both a search for women's identity and a space to determine a platform for action.

During the seventies, home economists were smarting from the disproportionate bashing of their profession by the more radical feminists. Questions were also being asked about the rigorousness of the discipline. This led to some interspective research by home economic academics such as Brown and Paolucci, who were able to put into the vernacular the changes in the field that had occurred over the last 70 years. Brown and Paolucci articulated goals for home economics that focussed on the family as a unit, as well as individual concerns of men and women in every day life. "The goal of Home Economics is to enable the family, individually and as a social institution, to build and maintain systems of action which lead to (i) maturing and individual self-formation and (ii) enlightened, co-operative participation in the critique and formulation of social goals and means for accomplishing them" (Brown & Paolucci, 1979). Both women's studies and home economics academics expressed

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their discipline's mandate in proactive human rights terms. One seeks to empower the women, the other to empower the family to be an informed autonomous influence within the systems that determine social values and mores.

Home economics and women's studies share similarly structured goals, but with a different focus. They also share a similarity in the broad construct of their fields of study. Both act as an umbrella to pull together the various subject areas that make up their respective disciplines. Both assimilate information from a number of other disciplines such as sociology and medicine.

Issues of concern to women and families are also the focus of analysis of other disciplines whose scholars critically analyse and put forth solutions from their own ideological view point. These view points are not necessarily the experience of women or families. Consequently, a more wholistic analysis should also be applied to the issue. The intent is to assess the full impact it would have on the lives of women and families. For example, social repercussions of the new human reproductive technologies are analyzed by women studies scholars for their legal, social, psychological, ethical, and political meaning. They ask the question: what does this mean for women? Home economists ask the question: what does this mean for the family and its members?

Women studies and home economics both face similar challenges as academic disciplines in the 90s. Each are attempting to establish scholarly research and rigorous and valid methodology independent of other disciplines. Historically, home economics research has been both extensive and innovative, so much so that it was often taken over by male dominated disciplines. For example, home economists at Cornell University pioneered the study of child development in the early nineteen hundreds. This new area of study attracted the interests of contemporary psychologists who consequently appropriated it for their own discipline. Experiences such as this one, effectively

limited the range for home economics research to more gender specific areas of women's expertise, such as home management and nutrition. It took the shoulder shaking accusations of the feminists of the 60s to startle home economists into realizing that they had been coasting on the practical applications of their expertise, and had ignored the research that is mandatory in keeping the concept of home economics academically viable.

Both women's studies and home economics are based on an integrated paradigm of subject areas on which each focusses its primary goals. The mandate of women studies is to understand women's place in society and empower them, individually and collectively, to seek change. The goal of home economics is to empower families, both as a single unit and as an institution, to function as a support system for the full development of its members, and to develop the means by which families can be proactive in seeking and establishing social goals. The concept that each field of study interconnects information from other disciplines is integral to the wholistic understanding of the lives of women and the study of family life.

It is as equally important for women and families to be the focus of their own discipline. Women have been systematically left out of the public world, subordinated, and unrecognized when measured by traditional values of power and economic worth. Families, however they are defined, should also be the focus of study to provide a central forum for examining issues that affect them. Society needs the concerted effort of both fields of study lest the private world of everyday life continue to be minimized and undervalued. Women's studies is where its at! but, so too is home economics! □

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Immunizing the world's children by 1990 - Canada is proudly participating in this extraordinary undertaking to control the six leading communicable childhood diseases that kill or permanently disable seven million children in the developing world every year.



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Celebrating the Stitch by Barbara Lee Smith. (1991). Newton, CT: The Taunton Press, 230 pages; \$34.95.

Celebrating the Stitch is a beautiful, picturesque, and inspiring compilation of selected works of almost 100 Canadian and American embroiderers. In the introduction Smith notes the lack of identity of contemporary North American embroiders and successfully attempts to draw attention to what may now be considered contemporary embroidery.

Smith has profiled and often quotes each artist and allows the reader a "firsthand account of their work". The photographs of selected work of each embroiderer are breathtaking and provide impartial documentation of the whole work. Although a textile background is not necessary for an understanding of the profiles, it is helpful in constructing a complete image of the embroidery art which is not complemented with a photograph and in understanding how the piece was constructed.

Sections including idea generation, materials, techniques, and creativity techniques assist the embroidering reader in developing a sense of inspiration. Often, Smith includes artist's challenges to assist in inspiring the reader.

Celebrating the Stitch is well-organized even though the chapter headings are what Smith refers to as "categoryless". With such titles as "Light and Shadow" and "Mysterious Messages", one might imagine the context in which the embroideries are portrayed. The reference section is complete with a glossary of hand embroidery stitches, a resources section, a bibliography, and selected index. The glossary includes excellent diagrams of each of the stitches used within the text. The resource section includes separate sections for supplies, books, journals, and magazines. Smith also divided the bibliography. The sections included were: embroidery design, color design and drawing, contemporary fibre art, and "For Inspiration".

An essential addition to any art or textile art enthusiast, *Celebrating the Stitch* is an inspiring piece of work. Smith has produced a wonderfully illustrated compilation of the works of many well-known and exciting embroiderers.

Reviewed by:

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Senior Resident,
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Winnipeg, MB

Today's Family: A Critical Focus by Phyllis Meiklejohn, Annette Yeager, and Lenore Kuch (Eds.). Don Mills, ON: Collier Macmillan Canada, Inc., 289 pages.

The book of readings considers contemporary families from a critical perspective. According to the editors, the purpose of this book is to supplement theoretical texts used in family courses. The major premise guiding the collection is that the diversity of family experiences requires multiple perspectives for understanding them. Thus the editors have selected a wide range of essays, articles,

and other assorted readings which are intended to "broaden...perceptions of family and...reflect the variety found in contemporary family life" (p. xiii). The editors anticipate that, through discussion and reflection, the reader will develop "a lasting framework for interpreting the family" (p. xiii).

The book is organized around five general themes or units: Ways of Knowing About Families (in which various sources of knowledge about families are identified); Family as Systems (in which family system theory is a central focus); Family Systems Through Time (in which life cycle concepts are depicted); The Emerging Family (in which changes in contemporary families are portrayed); and The Enduring Family (in which the continuity of families is emphasized). With the exception of the first unit, each begins with an introductory essay written by a Canadian family scholar. These essays create a kind of theoretical context for the readings which follow. The readings themselves are grouped according to a central concept related to the unit theme, and questions which further examine the concept are included at the end of the grouping. Quotations, proverbs, and sayings are interwoven throughout, to "prompt both critical and reflective discussion" (p. xiii).

This book is rich with possibilities for use in family courses. Not only does it include a broad range of topics and issues related to families, but it also provides many examples of and opportunities for critical examination of these. The questions and inquiry suggestions that follow each selection of writing are generally quite provocative, and reinforce concepts, facilitate further examination of issues, and encourage critical thought and reflection. The blend of popular and scholarly writing, and variety of readings (including literary excerpts, poetry, newspaper and journal articles, to name

a few) add to the book's appeal. The book reflects a distinctively Canadian focus, as Canadian statistics are presented throughout, and the writing of many prominent Canadian authors, journalists, and academics is featured in every unit.

Careful scrutiny, however, reveals that the book has several potential shortcomings. Of particular concern is the extent to which the phrase "the family" permeates the text and ultimately undermines or contradicts the underlying premise of the book. As some feminist writers point out, the use of this phrase implies that there is *one* family rather than *many* families. Given the editors' explicit concern for understanding the diversity of families and family relationships, use of this phrase is somewhat surprising. Second, there is little specific direction as to how the book may actually be used to augment the "theoretical texts" used in family courses. While the collection of readings presupposes that students have an extensive theoretical background or knowledge base upon which to build, practical strategies for incorporating some of the readings are lacking. Moreover, although the reading level suggests that this book would be most appropriate for use in colleges or universities, specific educational settings are not identified. Finally, the editors provide no rationale for identifying the five units or "areas of critical thought" which constitute a conceptual framework for the collection of readings. Indeed, the reader is given little insight into why a critical focus (as opposed to any other focus) was adopted in the first place and why there may be specific advantages to looking at family development and family issues from a critical perspective.

Despite these concerns, *Today's Family: A Critical Focus* represents a creative and refreshing departure from many of the standard textbooks about families. Through the diverse selection of readings, students are both able to view the concept of "family" from many different perspectives, and encouraged to engage in debate and discussion about a variety of issues related to family development and interaction. This book of readings would be a valuable companion text for most undergraduate family courses.

Reviewed by:

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Project Read World, Module IV – Entrepreneurship and the World of Work. (1991). A publication of the Federal/Provincial Consumer Education and Plain Language Task Force, 112 pages; \$4.25.

Entrepreneurship and the World of Work is the fourth in a series of five modules of Project Real World, an activity-based program of economic living skills for high school students. The purpose of the series is to provide practical and relevant resource material to help teachers introduce high school students to the economic realities and opportunities of the market place.

Entrepreneurship and the World of Work is not a text book. It serves, rather, as an activity-based teacher's resource guide which allows students to participate actively and to learn experientially about themselves, their values, the marketplace, and the career opportunities the market place makes available to them.

It should be noted, however, that *Entrepreneurship and the World of Work* is not a module about entrepreneurship. It is a module about career opportunities and the matching of career opportunities with student interests. Entrepreneurship is explored as only one alternative.

The book begins with a chapter on self-assessment. This is to allow students an opportunity to learn more about themselves and to be better able to match a career path to fit their own personal interests. This is followed by a chapter on career planning which is designed to make students aware of the many career paths available to them. A special chapter on entrepreneurship explores entrepreneurship as a career alternative. The module closes with an exploration of how to get and keep a job, including topics on resume writing, job search, job interviews, and employer expectations.

Entrepreneurship and the World of Work is an excellent example of the development of experiential learning material for the high school and perhaps even the junior high school audience. It seems ironic, however, that a publication of the consumer education and plain language task force would choose a title that, to some at least, could be misleading.

Reviewed by:

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Associate Dean, Community Education
Lethbridge Community College
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Editors Note: This book is one of a series of five modules available from: Manitoba Text Book Bureau, 277 Hutchings Street, Winnipeg, Manitoba R2X 2R4. Telephone (204) 945-8940.

Heart Smart Cooking on a Shoestring by Julie Watson. (1991). Toronto ON: Macmillan Canada, 92 pages; \$7.95.

"Heart Smart cooking doesn't have to be expensive," writes the Prince Edward Island author in the introduction to her book published in cooperation with the Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada. She then proposes to show how cabbage, potatoes, turnips, and other vegetables, staples of earlier generations, can be used to provide good nutrition while keeping costs down.

The introduction includes Canada's Guidelines for Healthy Eating, sketchy sections on the nutritional value of grains, fruits and vegetables, meats and alternatives, and a more lengthy one on milk products with some money saving fat-reducing tips. There is also a page each of "fat fighting" and shopping tips. More tips appear in the recipe sections.

Recipes are divided into eleven categories – soup through dessert, breakfast, lunch, and snacks. Most categories contain 5 or 6 recipes made with a limited number of ingredients and few seasonings. The lunch section is the largest and has a few more imaginative ideas.

Compared to the Heart and Stroke Foundation of Canada's other two information and recipe packed Heart Smart cookbooks by Anne Lindsay, this book offers poor value.

There are only 60 compared to more than 200 recipes in each of the first two books. Missing is the extensive nutritional information and consumer tips so helpful to those learning or teaching about healthier eating. Also missing is the nutritional analysis of each recipe and there are no recipes using low cost legumes and grains.

For those on a limited budget, either of the Heart and Stroke Foundation's first two books would be a better investment.

Reviewed by:

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Freelance Home Economist
Calgary

Kitchen Culture – Fifty Years of Food Fads by Gerry Schremp (1991). New York: Pharos Books, Scripps Howard Co. 195 pages; Paperback, \$21.95.

This book is for anyone who likes to read cookbooks and for anyone interested in food trends. It is a detailed survey of people and events that have shaped American eating habits. The author, Gerry Schremp, was a reporter for Life magazine as well as writer and editor for Time Life "Foods of the World" and "The Good Cook" series. The book is entertaining but also factual with dates and statistics documented with a comprehensive bibliography.

Starting with the forties, each decade is featured. For instance, food rationing, victory gardens, and the increased use of margarine affected eating habits during the war years. Housewives were urged to reuse grocery bags and save tin cans for patriotic reasons. With prosperity in the latter half of the decade, recipes like beef stroganoff and chiffon cake were trendy. Each decade covers the political, social, and economic changes that affected the families eating habits. Appliance innovations such as the automatic defrost refrigerator, electric frypan, dishwasher, and microwave are documented as well as smaller innovations such as cake mixes and Tupperware parties. Included are typical recipes of each era including things like grasshopper pie (1950), fettucini alfredo (1960), radicchio and

argula salad (1970), and tabbouleh (1980).

The book concludes with short essays by prominent chefs and food writers. It also includes an index so you can look up individual foods, trends, or people.

Reviewed by:

Linda West, PHEC
Canadian Western Natural Gas
Company Limited
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Kitchen Wisdom: A Harrowsmith Sourcebook for cooks by Pamela Cross. (1991). Camden East, ON: Camden House Publishing, 142 pages; \$19.95.

Kitchen Wisdom is an excellent "basic" cookbook that is not only well-researched but a visual pleasure to the reader.

The author, Pamela Cross, is a Canadian and although she has no formal qualifications as a food expert, she claims to have learned from her wealth of experience in the food industry. As food editor for Harrowsmith Magazine, she developed a passion for wholesome, earthy foods with an emphasis on day-to-day cooking and hospitality. The recipes she shares with her readers are well-written using both metric and imperial measures. The ingredients used are readily available and the

methods simple and easy-to-follow. What separates this cookbook from the barrage of cookbooks on the market today, is the wealth of well-researched information she has compiled.

The book is divided into four sections. The "Pantry" section contains excellent information about the use, history, and storage of many basic food items. Recipes are included in this section with superb food photography. The "How-To" section includes basic cooking techniques of many food items. The techniques are well-explained and when possible, step-by-step photographs enhance the information. "Tools and Equipment" is the third section and contains information regarding kitchen planning, large and small appliances, and gadgets. The last section includes an excellent assortment of charts and tables including: pasta descriptions, bean, grain, and vegetable cooking, herb and spice information, food storage, and a bakeware glossary.

This cookbook would be ideal for the novice cook or anyone desiring a good basic cookbook chockfull of pertinent Canadian information on wholesome foods. Well worth the \$20.00 price tag!

Reviewed by:

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Call for Papers 1992-93

The *Canadian Home Economics Journal* invites articles from home economists and others who share their interest in promoting the well-being of individuals and families. Papers related to social issues affecting the home economics profession and professional practice, or providing information about professional subject fields are of particular interest.

Submission deadlines:

Spring	December 15, 1992
Summer	March 1, 1993
Fall	June 15, 1993
Winter	September 15, 1993

Demande d'articles 1992-93

La *Revue canadienne d'Economie familiale* sollicite des articles soit par des spécialistes en Economie familiale soit par toute personne intéressée à promouvoir le bien-être des personnes et des familles. Les articles peuvent traiter d'aspects sociaux ou d'information dans les divers champs ou domaine de l'Economie familiale..

Dates limites d'envoi des manuscrits:

Printemps	15 décembre 1992
Été	1 ^{er} mars 1993
Automne	15 juin 1993
Hiver	15 septembre 1993



Leaning on desk — Linda Braun, sitting — JoAnne Benesh, standing — Liz Delahey

On the Job

*Profile of Food Focus Saskatoon Inc.
Home Economists in Business: An Entrepreneurial Team*

by Karen Webster

With dreams of the penthouse suite of offices on the fifth floor of their own building dancing in their heads, Food Focus Saskatoon Inc. begins the third year of operation. According to Linda Braun, one of the principals, they are the largest employer of home economists in Saskatchewan. A network of home economists, specialists, and other consultants, across Canada, has been organized by the company to address the needs of the clients they serve. JoAnne Benesh and Liz Delahey, the other two members of the team, along with Braun, represent over 50 years of experience in marketing, planning, writing, and management.

Presently, the Company operates out of a small building, formerly a 2-bedroom house, on Broadway Avenue in Saskatoon. They employ a full-time office manager who has a background in bookkeeping and is a computer specialist.

JoAnne Benesh (BSHEc, University of Saskatchewan, general home management) has served in local home economics associations in many capacities, including president.

Liz Delahey (BSHEc, University of Saskatchewan, general) was the Farm Living Editor of *The Western Producer* for 13 years and Editor of *Western People* for 2 years. She is a former president of ASHE, a member of ASHE—Saskatoon Branch and the ID Committee, and a YWCA board member. Liz was Co-Chair of CHEA Conference '92.

Linda Braun (BSHEc, University of Saskatoon, home management) was a home economics consultant for the Saskatchewan Pork Council for 6 years. Linda served in a number of capacities for ASHE—Saskatoon Branch; Coordinator of the International Development Workshop, Action Through Learning, and she is presently a member of the ID Committee. Linda is a member of IFHE, was a Regional Director for CHEA, and the International Development Pre Conference Coordinator in 1987. Linda was Secretary and Sponsorship Chair for the CHEA Conference.

Food Focus was formed in 1989 by the amalgamation of Benesh-Lorass Consulting and Braun-Lloyd Consulting. Cox-Lloyd and Lorass left in 1990 and 1991 to pursue other interests. Liz Delahey, following an early retirement from *The Western Producer*, in Saskatoon, joined in January, 1991. Regular part-time home economists include Betty Burwell, Mary Orr, and Judy Sakundiak.

The client base of Food Focus is as varied as the skills of the partners and staff, and includes government departments and agencies, the university, producer groups, food processors, and a variety of small businesses in Western Canada. Many of the clients are beginning or very young companies, and therefore unable to afford full-time marketing services. Food Focus, locating a niche, provides marketing and other services to these companies on a part-time basis.

One group benefitting from this unique service is the recently formed Western Canadian Wild Boar Association (WCWBA). Food Focus serves as administrators for WCWBA. They developed the Association's Constitution and a five-year marketing plan. The production of a colorful promotional brochure, featuring wild boar in a variety of tempting recipes, was an initial step in the plan.

The wide and diverse range of expertise within the company enables Food Focus to provide clients with an almost unlimited number of services. Recipe development and testing, food styling and photography, market research and development, sensory evaluation, focus group testing, demonstrations, presentations and seminars, trade show coor-

dination, special events programming, media campaigns, proposal writing, and product promotion are services listed on the company prospectus. Company partners now regularly contribute food columns to several daily and weekly papers in the province.

One innovative project of the company was the development of Food Pro, a food preservation hot-line. Now sponsored by Food Focus, in conjunction with the CHEAF, and several food companies, Food Pro has completed 3 years of service to Saskatchewan residents. A computer data base, Data Base II, was completed in 1991 to provide a bank of techniques, recipes, and trouble-shooting information for home preservers who use the hot-line.

Fully aware that most small firms die within the first five years of operation, the goal of Food Focus is to beat the odds, to survive, and to expand. Services in the human resources area will soon be added to the company prospectus. Being known as a reputable firm which does good work is important to the future of the Company and the best form of advertisement. Continuing to develop personal and professional expertise, as home economists, is a means to this end and the partners of Food Focus are professionally very active. They also encourage and support this activity among the part-time home economists they employ.

Food Focus Saskatoon Inc. home economists are proud to be doing something that they enjoy and can do well, while helping individuals and families in Saskatchewan. According to Linda Braun, "Home economics is alive and well at Food Focus".



IFHE ... In Focus

Regards Sur La FIEF

The International
Year of the Family
1994

L'Année internationale
de la famille
1994

Ruth E. Norman

Nineteen ninety-four has been declared the International Year of the Family (IYF) by the General Assembly of the United Nations. The purpose of the IYF is to highlight the needs and problems of families worldwide. It was proposed by non-governmental organizations (NGOs) including the International Federation for Home Economics which was one of the first NGOs to introduce a resolution supporting such a Year.

Home economics, with its focus on the family, has a responsibility to provide leadership for this Year, both nationally and internationally. To leave it to others would be a serious oversight of the mission and commitment of our profession. However, to be more effective in our IYF programs and activities, particularly with respect to international projects, we must be acquainted with the work of the UN in identifying the needs and problems of families in developing countries.

In the 1980s, the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs in Vienna began a series of studies of families in development. It was clear from this work that the family had been profoundly impacted during the pro-

L'Assemblée générale des Nations Unies a proclamé 1994 l'Année internationale de la famille (AIF) afin de souligner les besoins et les difficultés des familles dans le monde entier. Cette initiative a été proposée par les organismes non gouvernementaux (ONG), notamment par la Fédération internationale pour l'économie familiale, l'un des premiers ONG à présenter une résolution en faveur de cette proclamation.

Étant donné son champ d'action, l'économie familiale doit piloter cette Année sur la scène nationale et internationale. Laisser ce rôle à d'autres serait s'écarter de la mission et de l'engagement de la profession. Mais afin d'organiser des programmes et des activités utiles, en particulier des projets internationaux, il faut savoir comment les Nations Unies recensent les besoins et les difficultés des familles des pays en développement.

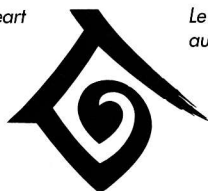
Dans les années 1980, le Centre pour le développement social et les affaires humanitaires de Vienne a entamé une série d'études sur les familles en développement, qui ont bien montré que le passage de la société rurale traditionnelle à la société industrialisée a profondément ébranlé la

International Year of the Family

1994

Année Internationale de la Famille

*Design reflects the family at heart
of society*



*Le logo symbolise une famille
au sein de la société*

Le Logo, créé par Catherine LITTASAY-FOLLIER, artiste suisse de renom vivant à VIENNE, servira à sensibiliser l'opinion publique sur les buts et les enjeux de l'année
The design, created by Catherine LITTASAY-ROLIER, a well known Swiss artist residing in VIENNA, will be used in promoting public awareness of the goals and purposes of the Year

cess of changing from a traditional rural society to an industrialized society. Shifts were seen in family structure from an extended family to single parent families; shifts from families as units of production in rural areas to migration to urban areas; an increased importance placed on the individual and an increase in divorce.

As a result of these studies and the passage of the resolution establishing IYF, work began on the guidelines and the objectives of the Year. The theme chosen for the Year was "Family: Resources and Responsibilities in a Changing World". A summary of six of the *principles* which underly IYF are:

1. The family constitutes the basic unit of society (and) ... the widest possible protection and assistance should be accorded to families so that they may assume their responsibilities within the community.
2. IYF encompasses the needs of all families, in all its diverse forms and functions.
3. Policies (developed as a result of IYF) will aim to foster equality between men and women to bring about the fullest sharing of domestic responsibilities and employment opportunities.
4. Programmes (developed for IYF) should support in the discharge of the functions of the family, promoting their ... self-reliance.
5. IYF will constitute an event within a continuing process (supporting families).
6. Activities for IYF will be undertaken at all levels regional and international; however, their primary focus will be on the local and national levels.

One of the *objectives* of IYF is to stimulate local and national actions as part of a sustained long-term effort to:

— increase awareness of family issues among governments as well as the private sector. IYF should serve to highlight the importance of families, to provide a better understanding of their functions and problems; and to promote knowledge of the economic, social, and demographic processes affecting families and their members.

While these principles and objectives were written with the family in developing countries in mind, they apply also to families in industrialized countries who share many of these problems.

Thus far, the major work for IYF has been done by NGOs who are members of the Committees on the Families organized at the following locations: at UN headquarters in New York; at UNESCO headquarters in Paris; at UN headquarters in Geneva; and at the Centre for Social Development and Humanitarian Affairs (CSDHA) in Vienna. These Committees are made up of a wide variety of organizations: religious groups such as Church Women United and the Salvation Army; professional organizations such as the International Organization of University Women and the International Federation for Home Economics; and service organizations such as Zonta International and Soroptomist International. The Committees are organized differently in each of the four locations but each has a responsibility to inform its organization about the activities of their committees and to stimulate their own organization's plans for the Year.

The Committee on the Family in New York is made up of about 50 members. It was organized in the mid-eighties

famille et transformé sa structure. On est passé de la famille «élargie» à la famille monoparentale. La famille, unité de production dans les régions rurales, a émigré dans les régions urbaines; l'individu a occupé plus de place et le divorce s'est répandu.

Après ces études et l'adoption de la résolution instituant l'AIF, des lignes directrices et des objectifs ont été préparés. L'AIF, placée sous le thème «La famille: ressources et responsabilités dans un monde en changement», s'inspirera de six *principes* que nous résumons ici:

1. La famille constitue la cellule de base de la société (et) ... il faut lui accorder le maximum de protection et d'aide pour qu'elle assume ses responsabilités dans la collectivité.
2. L'Année internationale de la famille aborde les besoins de toutes les familles, sous toutes leurs formes et dans tous leurs rôles.
3. Les politiques (découlant de l'AIF) doivent encourager l'égalité entre les hommes et les femmes pour un partage total des tâches domestiques et des possibilités d'emploi.
4. Les programmes (créés pour l'AIF) doivent favoriser l'allègement des tâches de la famille afin de promouvoir...son autonomie.
5. L'Année internationale de la famille doit s'inscrire dans un processus continu (d'aide aux familles).
6. Les activités organisées dans le cadre de l'AIF doivent se dérouler à tous les échelons, régional et international, mais surtout local et national.

L'un des *objectifs* visés est de promouvoir des initiatives locales et nationales qui entrent dans une démarche à long terme et durable, destinée à:

— sensibiliser les gouvernements et le secteur privé aux questions familiales. L'AIF devrait souligner l'importance des familles, faire mieux connaître leur rôle et leurs difficultés, et montrer les phénomènes économiques, sociaux et démographiques qui ont des répercussions sur elles et leurs membres.

Ces principes et ces objectifs ont été conçus en fonction des pays en développement, mais sont tout aussi valables pour les familles des pays industrialisés qui connaissent beaucoup de ces difficultés.

Jusqu'ici, le gros du travail effectué pour l'AIF a été fait par les ONG membres des comités sur la famille formés à quatre endroits: au siège de l'ONU, à New York; au siège de l'UNESCO, à Paris; au siège de l'ONU, à Genève; et au Centre pour le développement social et les affaires humanitaires de Vienne. Ces comités regroupent de nombreux organismes: groupes confessionnels comme la Church Women United et l'Armée du Salut; des organismes professionnels comme l'International Organization of University Women et la Fédération internationale pour l'économie familiale; et des clubs de bienfaisance comme Zonta International et Soroptomist International. Leur organisation diffère, mais ils doivent tous informer leur organisme de ce qu'ils font et l'inciter à tirer des plans pour l'AIF.

Composé d'une cinquantaine de membres, le Comité de New York a été créé au milieu des années 80 par un petit noyau d'organismes soucieux d'étudier et de suivre l'avancement de la résolution sur l'AIF à l'Assemblée générale de l'ONU, de faire pression sur les délégués pour

with a small nucleus of organizations that met to study and follow the progress of the resolution on the Year in the UN General Assembly, to lobby General Assembly delegates to pass the resolution, and to determine what programmes each of the agencies in New York had existing for families in the 1980s.

In 1987, the New York Committee on the Family organized its first consultation inviting the specialized agencies. These included UNICEF, WHO, the UN Development Program (UNDP), and UNESCO. One important factor that was brought out in the consultation was the need to find common denominators in the divergent views of the problems facing the family throughout the world. A second problem was to analyze family policies that may not be explicitly designated as family policies but which have a great effect on the family.

To collect data on the family, UNDP developed the National Survey. This survey collects and integrates data including demographic characteristics, fertility, mortality, migration, housing, health, nutrition, education, literacy, culture, employment, household consumption, and household expenditures. This survey goes far beyond that information previously available about families which focussed primarily on economics and emphasized yearly earnings. This is an important step in being able to view families in a more rounded manner.

Since 1987, additional consultations, briefings, and meetings have been held with NGOs on other issues of concern such as aging, drugs, women, and population. These consultations continue to be held. A consultation on fathers stressed the gender division that exists between the roles of men and women and how it creates problems in both developed and developing countries. The keynote address, "A Global Perspective", pointed out the gap that exists between the roles of men and women and how it creates many problems in both developed and developing countries. The feminine role is rooted in biology and the male role is defined by society. In these times of change, the role of the fathers is less clear and other institutions have taken over some of his traditional roles.

The family is under additional strain. The future becomes more unpredictable with unemployment, growing poverty, changing values, and women's entry into the labor market. Education is needed for both men and women to enable them to respond to today's changing developments.

Meetings were organized during the 1991-1992 year by joining with other NGO Committees. These included joint meetings with the Committee on the Status of Women, the Committee on Aging, the Committee on Substance Abuse, and the Committee on Sustainable Development. These meetings have enabled the members of the Family Committee to gain a broad understanding of the issues facing the family worldwide. This information, when passed on to their membership, provides a basis for organizations to plan programs that can be implemented in their own communities.

The United Nations does not plan to have an international conference during the International Year of the Family. All programs and activities are to be planned and carried out on the local, regional, and national levels. Nineteen-ninety-three is to be the year of action, and 1994 will be the year of celebration of all of those programs.

qu'ils adoptent la résolution, et de recenser les programmes destinés aux familles des organismes new-yorkais dans les années 1980.

En 1987, il a tenu sa première consultation en invitant les organisations spécialisées, notamment l'UNICEF, l'OMS, le Programme des Nations Unies pour le développement (PNUD) et l'UNESCO. Une constatation importante en est ressortie: la nécessité de trouver des dénominateurs communs aux points de vue divergents sur les problèmes des familles dans le monde entier. Une deuxième difficulté a surgi, celle d'analyser des politiques qui, si elles ne sont pas expressément présentées comme des politiques de la famille, ont pourtant des répercussions sérieuses pour les familles.

Dans un effort de documentation, le PNUD a lancé son étude nationale destinée à recueillir et à analyser des données, dont des statistiques sur la démographie, la fertilité, la mortalité, les flux migratoires, le logement, la santé, la nutrition, l'éducation, l'alphabétisation, la culture, l'emploi, la consommation et les dépenses des ménages. Cette étude est une mine de renseignements, car jusqu'ici on s'était surtout limité à la situation économique des ménages, notamment à leur revenu annuel. C'est un outil précieux, qui offre une vue générale de la situation.

Depuis 1987, d'autres consultations, séances d'information et réunions ont été tenues avec les ONG sur d'autres sujets de préoccupation comme le vieillissement, les drogues, les femmes et la population. Les consultations se poursuivent. L'une d'elles, portant sur les pères, a fait ressortir la division existant entre le rôle des hommes et des femmes, et les problèmes que cela crée partout, dans les pays en développement et les autres. L'allocution intitulée "Une perspective globale" a mis en lumière le fossé séparant ces rôles et les nombreux problèmes qu'il crée, dans le monde entier. Le rôle de la femme est lié à la biologie, alors que celui de l'homme est défini par la société. En cette époque de changement, le rôle des pères est plus flou et d'autres institutions assument certains de leurs rôles traditionnels.

La famille vit de nouvelles tensions. L'avenir devient de plus en plus imprévisible, avec les pertes d'emploi, la pauvreté croissante, l'évolution des valeurs et la présence des femmes sur le marché de travail. Hommes et femmes sans distinction doivent être éduqués pour pouvoir faire face aux transformations actuelles.

Diverses réunions ont été organisées en 1991-1992 avec d'autres comités d'ONG tel que le Comité du statut de la femme, le Comité du vieillissement, le Comité des toxicomanies et le Comité du développement durable. Elles ont fourni au Comité de la famille un tableau complet de la problématique à l'échelle mondiale. Ces renseignements, lorsqu'ils sont communiqués aux membres, permettent aux organismes de planifier des programmes adaptés à leur communauté.

Les Nations Unies ne prévoient aucune conférence mondiale pendant l'Année internationale de la famille. Programmes et activités doivent être planifiés et mis en oeuvre aux échelons local, régional et national. Mille neuf cent quatre-vingt-treize doit être l'année de l'action, et 1994, celle des festivités et de la mise en oeuvre des programmes.

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Canadian Home Economics Association Association canadienne d'économie familiale



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*Lisa Lix
Manitoba*

Robin Hood Multifoods Award Bourse Robin-Hood Multifood Inc.

*Bonnie Jean McCabe
Prince Edward Island*

CHEA Honorary Membership ACEF membre honoraire

*Ruth Robinson
Saskatchewan*

Nestlé Canada Inc. Award Bourse de Nestlé Canada Inc.

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Prince Edward Island*

CHEA Honour Award ACEF Prix d'honneur

*Jean Steckle, Ontario
Carmelle Thérien-Viau, Quebec*

Federation Awards Prix de fédération

*Lillian McConnell, Saskatchewan
Linda Braun, Saskatchewan
Norma Hextall, Saskatchewan*

Canadian Soft Drink Association "Distinguished Visiting Lecturer Award" Association canadienne de l'industrie des boissons gazeuses « Bourse de conférences spéciales »

*Judith Marshall
Ontario*

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UNDERGRADUATE COMPETITION FOR STUDY OF GLOBAL ISSUES

THE CHEA GLOBAL AWARENESS AWARD

To encourage awareness of global development issues and their impact on families among students in home economics and related programs, the Canadian Home Economics Association International Development Program, in cooperation with the Association of Canadian Home Economics Students (ACHES), offers the CHEA Global Awareness Award.

ELIGIBILITY:

Undergraduate students from faculties of home economics, home economics education, family and consumer studies, human ecology, foods and nutrition and related programs.

ENTRY CONTENTS:

Entries shall be an original paper (2000 words) which examines an issue affecting quality of life in developing countries. It may be submitted in the form of an information paper, position paper, term paper or feature news article. It should analyze the structural causes of the problem, discuss the parallels and links in Canada and suggest action or solutions. Entrants must be willing to give a short presentation on the issue at the ACHES Conference or CHEA pre-conference workshop.

PRIZE:

A prize of \$50 and expenses to attend the ACHES Conference in Charlottetown, P.E.I., in January, 1993, will be awarded for a paper reflecting personal experience in a developing country. A second prize of \$50 and expenses to attend CHEA's 1993 pre-conference development education workshop in Windsor, Ontario will be awarded for a paper based on academic study and research. CHEA may at the discretion of the International Development Committee publish or use the winning submission in its development education program.

SUBMISSION DEADLINE:

No later than November 30, 1992, to: The Canadian Home Economics Association, Development Education Program, 901-151 Slater St., Ottawa, Ont. K1P5H3.

FOR MORE INFORMATION, CONTACT:

Pat Ulrich, CHEA Development Education officer at the above address, (613) 238-8817.

CONCOURS DE PREMIER CYCLE PORTANT SUR LES QUESTIONS INTERNATIONALES

LE PRIX DE SENSIBILISATION AUX QUESTIONS INTERNATIONALES

Afin d'encourager les étudiants des programmes d'économie familiale et complémentaires à s'intéresser aux problèmes de développement international et à leur incidence sur les familles, le Programme de développement international de l'Association canadienne d'économie familiale offre, de concert avec l'Association canadienne des étudiants d'économie familiale (ACEEF), le Prix de sensibilisation aux questions internationales de l'ACEF.

ADMISSIBILITÉ :

Ce concours est ouvert aux étudiants et étudiantes de premier cycle des facultés d'économie familiale, d'éducation à l'économie familiale, d'études familiales et des consommateurs, d'écologie humaine, aliments et nutrition et programmes complémentaires.

NATURE DU CONCOURS :

Les concurrents soumettront un texte original (2000 mots) traitant d'un problème relié à la qualité de la vie dans les pays en développement. Le texte peut être présenté sous forme d'un document d'information, d'un exposé de position, d'une dissertation ou d'un reportage. Il faudrait y analyser les causes structurelles du problème, établir les parallèles et les liens avec le Canada et proposer des moyens à prendre ou des solutions à apporter. Les concurrents doivent être prêts à faire une brève présentation sur le sujet au congrès de l'ACEEF, ou à l'atelier précongrès de l'ACEF.

PRIX :

Un prix de 50 \$ plus les frais de participation au congrès de l'ACEEF, qui se tiendra en janvier 1993 à Charlottetown (Î.-P.-É.), sera décerné pour un texte relatant une expérience personnelle dans un pays en développement. Un deuxième prix de 50 \$ plus les frais de participation à l'atelier précongrès d'éducation au développement à Windsor (Ontario) sera décerné pour un texte portant sur des travaux et des recherches universitaires. L'ACEF peut, à la discrétion du Comité de développement international, publier ou utiliser le texte primé dans son programme d'éducation au développement.

DATE LIMITE ENVOI :

Adresser les textes au plus tard le 30 novembre 1992 à L'Association canadienne d'économie familiale, Programme d'éducation au développement, 901-151, rue Slater, Ottawa (Ontario) K1P 5H3.

POUR PLUS DE RENSEIGNEMENTS, S'ADRESSER À :

Pat Ulrich, Agent d'éducation au développement de l'ACEF, à l'adresse ci-dessus. Tel.: (613) 238-8817.

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR GRADUATE STUDY

Eligibility

Applicant must be:

- Canadian citizen or landed immigrant
- member of CHEA
- graduate in home economics, human ecology, or consumer studies (Additional requirements are noted in descriptions.)
- proceeding to a higher academic degree

Individuals may apply for a maximum of 2 scholarships, and are reminded to read the accompanying descriptions carefully to determine which are best matched to the applicant.

Previous CHEA scholarship winners are eligible to reapply for awards, provided they continue to be enrolled in graduate study. Unsuccessful applicants may reapply for the same or different awards in future years. Files are not kept, so a new application must be submitted each time.

Awarding of Scholarships

Applications which satisfy the award criteria are evaluated on the basis of personal qualities, past or potential contribution to the profession of home economics, and scholarship.

Applicants will be notified of the decision of the awards committee by April 30. Funds are released to winners once it has been confirmed that they are registered in their respective programs.

Application Process

Completed application must be postmarked no later than January 15.

Application forms are available through faculty offices, or from CHEA.



Canadian Home Economics Association
Association canadienne d'économie familiale

901, 151 Slater Street, Ottawa, Ontario K1P 5H3
Tel: (613) 238-8817 Fax: (613) 238-1677

doctoral study \$4000	Fiftieth Anniversary Scholarship Commemorates the 50th anniversary of CHEA. Applicant must have been a CHEA member for at least 2 years.
graduate study \$4000	Silver Jubilee Scholarship Commemorates the 25th anniversary of CHEA.
graduate study \$4000	Mary A. Clarke Memorial Scholarship Established as a tribute to Mary Clarke, a valued member of CHEA, and 1952-54 president.
graduate study (foods) \$1000	Nestlé Canada Inc. Scholarship Selection based on previously-described general criteria, and on intention of the applicant to pursue a career in the food industry. Presented by Nestlé Canada Inc.
graduate study \$1000	Robin Hood Multifoods Scholarship Preference is given to an individual planning a career in business, consumer service (foods), or foodservice management. Presented by Robin Hood Multifoods Inc.
Masters of Education \$5000	Ruth Binnie Scholarship (two awards) For a graduate in home economics or home economics education who holds a professional teaching certificate, and has a high commitment to the teaching profession and home economics education. First consideration is given to full-time students; awards to part-time students will be prorated. In addition to the general criteria for awards, consideration will be given to contribution toward home economics education in junior or senior high school, and potential in the education field. Established through the generosity of the late Ruth Binnie, Halifax, to provide quality home economics education in Canada.

BOURSES D'ÉTUDES SUPÉRIEURES

Admissibilité

- Conditions à remplir:
- être citoyenne canadienne ou immigrante reçue
 - être membre de l'ACEF
 - être diplômée d'économie familiale, d'écologie humaine ou d'études des consommateurs (voir les autres conditions dans les descriptions)
 - poursuivre des études de niveau supérieur

Les candidates peuvent s'inscrire à 2 bourses au maximum. Elles doivent lire attentivement les descriptions ci-contre pour choisir les bourses correspondant le mieux à leur cas.

Les personnes qui ont déjà reçu une bourse d'études de l'ACEF peuvent poser à nouveau leur candidature si elles sont encore inscrites à des études supérieures. Les candidates qui n'ont pas été sélectionnées peuvent postuler à nouveau la même bourse, ou une autre, les années suivantes. Nous ne gardons pas les dossiers. Il faut chaque fois faire une nouvelle demande.

Attribution des bourses

Les demandes qui répondent aux critères sont évaluées en fonction des qualités personnelles de la candidate, de son apport passé ou possible à la profession de l'économie familiale et de ses notes.

Les intéressées seront informées au plus tard le 30 avril de la décision du Comité des prix et bourses. Les personnes sélectionnées recevront l'argent après confirmation de leur inscription dans leurs programmes respectifs.

Modalités de demande

Le formulaire de demande dûment rempli doit être envoyé au plus tard le 15 janvier, le cachet de la poste faisant foi.

Les formulaires sont disponibles dans les facultés ou à l'ACEF.



Canadian Home Economics Association
Association canadienne d'économie familiale

151, rue Slater, bureau 901, Ottawa (Ontario) K1P 5H3
Téléphone: (613) 238-8817 Télécopieur: (613) 238-1677

Docteurat 4000 \$	Bourse du Cinquantenaire Célébration du Cinquantenaire de l'ACEF. Les candidates doivent avoir été membres de l'ACEF au moins deux ans.
2 ^e et 3 ^e cycles 4000 \$	Bourse du Vingt-cinquième anniversaire Célébration du Vingt-cinquième anniversaire de l'ACEF.
2 ^e et 3 ^e cycles 4000 \$	Bourse commémorative Mary A. Clarke Offerte en l'honneur de Mary Clarke, membre éminent de l'ACEF et présidente de 1952 à 1954.
2 ^e et 3 ^e cycles (alimentation) généralistes déjà indiqués 1000 \$	Bourse de Nestlé Canada Inc. La sélection est faite d'après les critères et l'intention de la candidate de faire carrière dans l'industrie de l'alimentation. Décernée par Nestlé Canada Inc.
2 ^e et 3 ^e cycles 1000 \$	Bourse Robin Hood Multifoods La préférence ira à une personne qui veut faire carrière dans les affaires, le service aux consommateurs (alimentation) ou la gestion de services alimentaires. Décernée par Robin Hood Multifoods Inc.
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